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THE FATHERS OF CONFEDERATION.

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HISTORY OF CANADA

FOR USE IN

PUBLIC SCHOOLS

BY

MARIA LAWSON.

EDITED BY

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PROFESSOR OF ENGLISH LITERATURE IN VICTORIA UNIVERSITY, TORONTO.

REVISED EDITION, 1908.

Authorized for use in the Schools of British Columbia.

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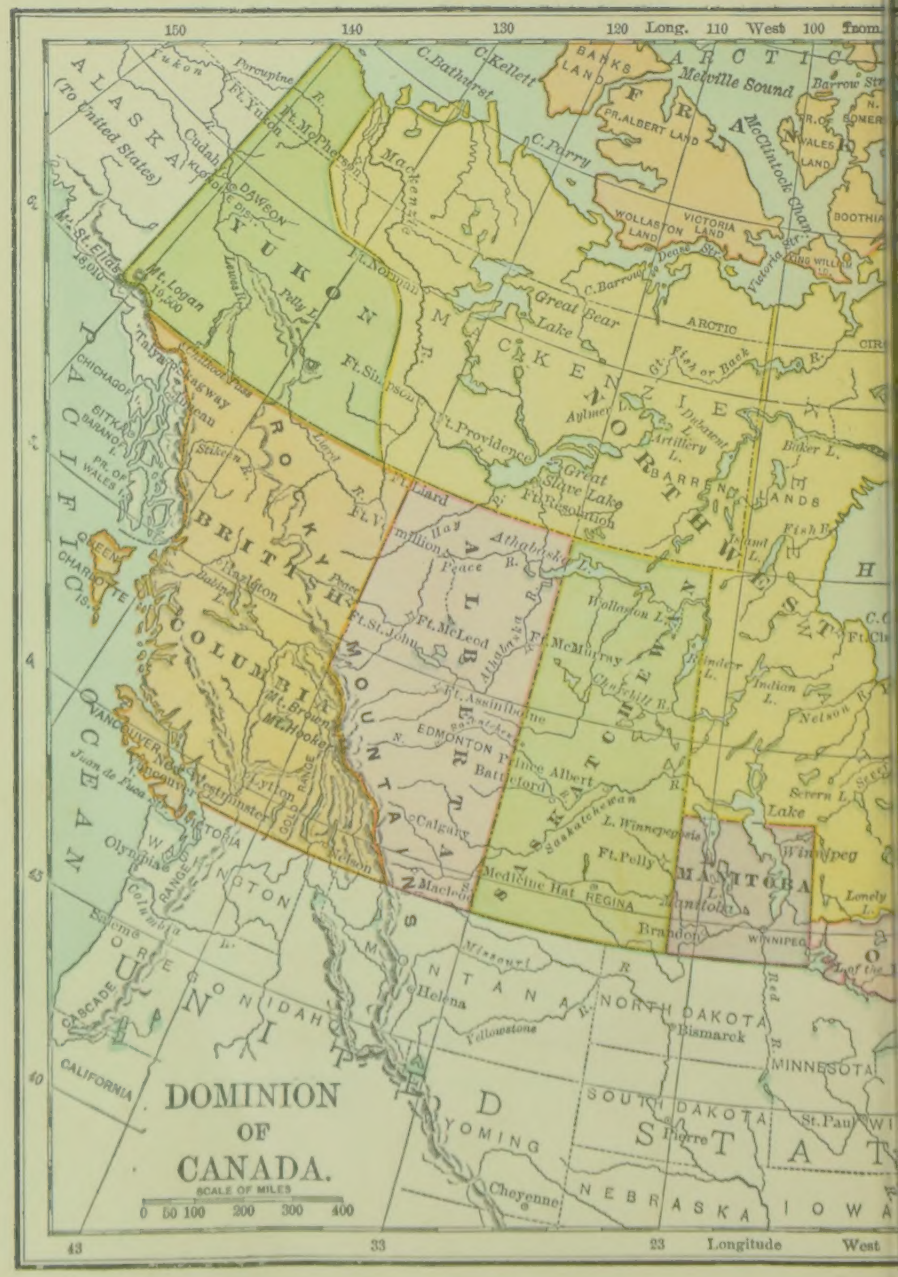
TORONTO.

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INTRODUCTION.

In compiling a school history for the use of Canadian children, the aim of the writer has been to make its readers feel that the explorers, the missionaries, the soldiers, the pioneers and the statesmen of whom its pages tell, were real men and women. They were engaged in the work of changing half a continent, inhabited by wandering tribes of savages, into a prosperous commonwealth. That work is still going on, and though the superstructure may not need the same kind of labor as was required for the foundation, its builders must possess no less skill, industry and wisdom. In the hope that this little book will help to fit the boys and girls, who are the hope of our country, for the duties of citizenship, it is placed in their hands.

The thanks of the writer are due to the provincial librarian of British Columbia, E. O. Schofield, Esq., and to other kind friends for books loaned; to Alexander Robinson, B.A., Superintendent of Education, British Columbia, and F. H. Eaton, D.C.L., for kindly criticism and encouragement.


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Godthaab
Holsteinborg
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Omenak Fd.
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Addair
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RYAN
C. Kater
C. Hooper
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Cumberland Island
C. Mercy
MELVILLE PEN.
Kennedy L.
Fox Channel
FOX LAND
HALL PEN.
LOCKE I.
RESOLUTION I.
METAINCOGNITA
C. Best
C. Chidley
Hudson Strait
SOUTHAMPTON
Fisher Str.
C. Smith
Payne L.
Ungava B.
Ramah
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Boundary
Ft. Chimo
C. Dufferin
Big Salt R.
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Mingan
Gr. of Belle Isle
C. Bauld
Belle B.
Trinity B.
Placentia
Race
G. Wallis
East C.
Gulf of
St. Lawrence
ANTICOSTI I.
C. Rosier
CHARLOTTETOWN
PRINCE EDWARD I.
CAPE BRETON I.
C. Breton
Strait Canso
NEWFOUNDLAND
N. S.
N. B.
P. E. I.
Albany Ft.
Albany R.
Moose Factory
Joseph
L. Nipigon
Arthur
Superior
Sault Ste. Marie
Sunbury
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L. Michigan
Detroit
Cleveland
Toronto
L. Ontario
Kingston
Buffalo
Albany
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Ottawa R.
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St. Lawrence
Quebec
Pittsburg
St. John
New Castle
N. L. W.
BRUNSWICK
FREDERICTON
MAINE
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HISTORY OF CANADA.

CHAPTER I.

EARLY DISCOVERIES.

In the years when Saxon and Dane were still struggling for the mastery of England, Norsemen left the rugged land of Norway for yet more northern climes. They took possession of barren groups of islands to the north of Scotland and peopled the gloomy valleys of Iceland. From this dreary retreat some of them crossed the Atlantic, and landing in Greenland established a colony there. About the year 1000 A.D., Lief Ericson, one of the Greenland colonists, sailed southward. Passing by many shores he discovered a fertile region which he called Vineland. As time went on a Norse colony was planted near one of its

Early Norse Explorers.

pleasant harbors. But hardy as the adventurers were, they were attacked and overcome by the fierce and cunning red man, whose home they had invaded before the appointed time. Their colony was uprooted. Not a trace remains to show whether Vineland was on the eastern coast of Canada or of New England. Long, long before the Icelandic sagas which recorded the adventures of Lief Ericson and his ancestors reached the outer world, America had been re-discovered by one whose steadfast courage no son even of that race of heroes, the Norsemen, ever excelled. For his coming the world had to wait nearly five hundred years.

The boys who studied history and geography in the fifteenth century, looked at a map of the world of which the Mediterranean Sea was the centre. On its shores lived the nations distinguished for learning and the arts of civilization. Far away to the East was a marvellous country called India, from which for ages had come gems and gold, spices and ivory, and fabrics of finest texture and richest dye. Beyond this were the yet more mysterious regions of China and Japan. The treasures of the east were brought to the west by caravans, which spent months in traversing the deserts and climbing the mountains that lay between the fertile plains of India and the sparkling waters of the Mediterranean.

A Marvellous Country.

To the north west of Europe lay an island containing two kingdoms — England and Scotland. A little to the west was another island called Ireland, part of which owned the sway of the English monarch. History told of many brave deeds done by the English in the wars in the Holy Land and in France. But for thirty years the people of England had been engaged in civil strife, and at the close of the long wars, known as the Wars of the Roses, she was ruled by a king who spent his days in heaping up riches. On the western border of Spain, washed by the waves and swept by the winds of the mighty

Atlantic, was the kingdom of Portugal, famous for the skill of her mariners. Seeking a route by sea to India, her ships had crept during the last fifty years along the coast of Africa till at last they had reached its southern limit, the Cape of Storms, and found the sea-way they sought to the east. In the last quarter of the fifteenth century there lived in Lisbon a Genoese

Christopher Columbus.

maker of maps and charts named Christopher Columbus, who for years had besought the King of Portugal to furnish him with the means of crossing the Atlantic Ocean. The newly discovered compass would guide him on his way, and beyond the ocean



THE LANDING OF COLUMBUS.

he would find the shores of India, for he had learned and he believed that the earth was a globe. Not receiving the aid he sought, this enthusiast went from court to court, often penniless and hungry, till at last, in 1492 A.D., Queen Isabella of Spain granted him the means of carrying out his great experiment, and Columbus discovered—not a new route to India, as he supposed, but the island fringe of a new continent.

When the news spread through Europe that riches surpassing even those of the storied East had been discovered on the western shores of the Atlantic, every country sought to obtain a footing in the New World. A Venetian merchant sailor, John Cabot, living in Bristol, begged that King Henry VII.

Cabot's Eagerness for Discovery.

would grant to him and his sons permission to discover lands beyond the western ocean. He received a commission and set sail in 1497. All lands discovered by him were to belong to England. The Cabots were to have the sole right to trade in the new territories and the king was to receive one fifth of the profit. On St. John's day, June 24, 1497, the Cabot expedition reached the mainland of North America at some point on the shores of Nova Scotia or Cape Breton. To Columbus must always be given the praise of the first discovery of the new world, but Cabot had reached the mainland of North America more than a year before Columbus, on his third voyage, saw the coast of South America. It will always be interesting to Canadians to know that the first shores of this continent discovered by Europeans were the shores of our Dominion, and that the banner of England was the first to float over the mainland of America.

As the old navigator on that long midsummer day so many years ago pursued his course, he descried across the sunlit waves a large island. He had called the mainland *Terra Primum Visa*, or the "land first seen." To the island, which according

Prince Edward Island.

to a map drawn by his son Sebastian was that now known as Prince Edward, he gave the name of the saint in whose honor the day of its discovery was kept. John Cabot died while preparations were being made for a second voyage, but the next year his son Sebastian returned, and after a vain attempt to find his way round the north of the continent of America, he turned his prow south and explored the coast as far as

Florida. On the right of first discovery made in these voyages England based her claims at a later period to North America.

A Portuguese Mariner.

Gaspard Cortereal, a Portuguese mariner, next visited the shores of Canada. He came to search for slaves, and in 1500 A.D. took home a number of captive Indians. On his next voyage he was lost, and his brother, who came to seek him, shared his fate. Thus, like a black shadow, the sails of the Portuguese slave-dealer flit across our history. Its earliest pages, however, are filled with the better deeds of another nation.



CHAPTER II.

COLONIZATION.

In a very few years after Columbus discovered the new world, and the Cabots had led the way across the stormy waters of the North Atlantic, fishermen from the western shores of France regularly sailed to the coasts of Newfoundland. Here they found neither gold nor gems, but, with great toil, drew from the sullen waters the gleaming fish, which formed the harvest of the sea. Nearly four hundred years have passed, and still the Banks of Newfoundland yield a rich return to thousands of fishermen who ply their trade in much the same way as did the Bretons and Basques of the sixteenth century.

French Fishermen Seek our Coast.

While these hardy mariners were battling with the Atlantic waves, the King of France and his nobles were engaged in cruel and useless wars. Spain had, ever since the discovery of America, claimed it as her own. Now the French king, Francis I., determined, if possible, to obtain from his hated rival, Charles V., King of Spain and Emperor of Germany, a share of the possessions and treasures that lay in the still mysterious regions beyond the Atlantic Ocean. He sent an Italian named John Verrazano to seek a western passage to what was then believed to be the rich kingdom of Cathay, renowned in ancient story.

Verrazano set out with four vessels in April, 1523. He was at first unfortunate, but at length reached the coast of what is now North Carolina. Here the natives treated him and his sailors with the greatest kindness—a kindness of which this Christian gentleman proved himself unworthy. A little

Verrazano Sent by France.

farther along the coast the explorers found an old woman, a young girl and some children hiding in the long grass. They enticed them to come near, then stole away one of the children, and tried, though vainly, to capture the girl. Verrazano explored the eastern coast of the United States from Carolina to Maine. He found the Indians in the north savage and suspicious. Perhaps they had already learned to fear and hate the rude fisherman, who came to their encampments to trade. When he reached Newfoundland the weather grew stormy, and he returned to France to write the first description of the eastern shores of the United States. This noted explorer is said to have been killed by the Spaniards for piracy, a business in which the men of that nation would allow no one but themselves to engage.

The Intrepid Jacques Cartier.

Ten years later, in April, 1534, a brave Breton sailor, Jacques Cartier, of St. Malo, sailed away to see if by any means he might find the short passage to the East. He steered for Newfoundland. There he was delayed by icebergs. Passing through the Straits of Belle Isle, he sailed as far south as Cape St. George. Turning westward he reached the shore of New Brunswick, near the mouth of the Miramichi River. He found the country well wooded and thought it very beautiful. In open places he found ripe strawberries, for it was the 30th of June. He soon entered a great bay, which he called *Baye des Chaleurs*, or Bay of Heat.

Cartier sailed around this bay for seventy-five miles. Then he landed at Gaspé and erected a cross bearing a shield with the arms of France. All along this coast he had met with great kindness from the savage tribes, but the suspicions of the chief of the Indians at Gaspé were aroused when the ceremony of planting the cross was performed. Cartier was able to pacify him; but how must the old savage have hated the white explorer when he missed his sons, whom Cartier captured and carried off!

Cartier, however, treated them kindly, and when he returned next year brought them with him as pilots. This time he had three vessels, and was accompanied by a number of gentlemen who were interested in his enterprise. In spite of storms and the dangers from rocks and currents, he arrived safely at the island of Orleans. There he was met by Indians, who treated him with the greatest hospitality and listened in astonishment to the tales of their countrymen who had come back with him. They brought him to their encampment, which was pitched upon the rock where the old city of Quebec now stands. This place was called Stadacona, and its king was Donnacona.

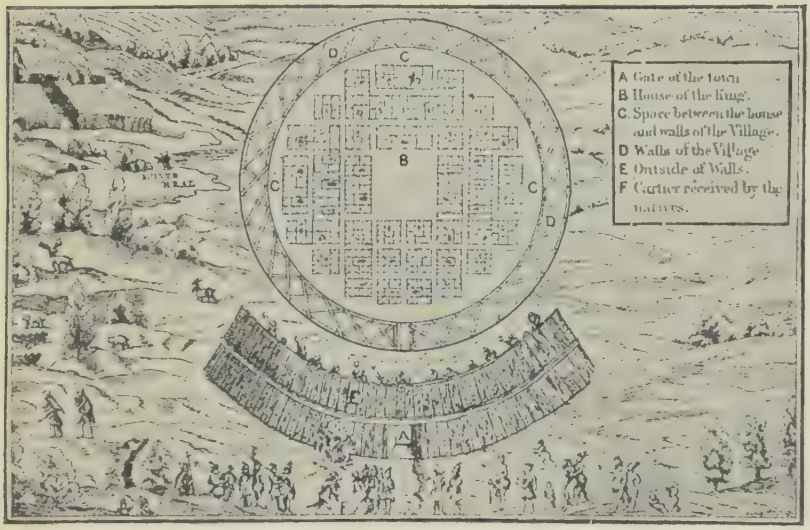
Indians Hospitable.

From the Indians Cartier learned that there was a larger town called Hochelaga, farther up the river, which then bore the same name. Cartier determined to visit this place. The Indians tried by every means to prevent his doing so; and when they found he could not be persuaded to give up the journey, they determined to frighten him. Three of them dressed themselves as devils "in black and white dog-skins, with faces black as ink, and horns as long as a man's arm." Cartier was told that their god Condonagny had sent them to say that if he would persist in going up the river he and his men would be destroyed by snows, tempests and drifting ice. But Cartier was resolute. He took one of his ships, two open boats and fifty men, and started on his journey. It was the latter part of September. The trees of Eastern Canada wore their gorgeous autumn dress. The bright sun shone on the broad, sparkling river. The air was pure and fresh as new wine. We can imagine the light-hearted Frenchmen beguiling their voyage with song and jest or whiling away the hours with many a merry tale as they rested by their evening camp-fire.

Cartier not Terrified by "Devils."

On the second of October, they reached Hochelaga. Here, on an island in the midst of the river, they saw a large Indian

town—the town they were seeking. It stood in the midst of golden cornfields, and behind rose a forest-clad mountain, to which Cartier at once gave the name of *Mont Réal*. Here again the white strangers received a hearty welcome, and were treated with unbounded, if rude, hospitality.



PLAN OF HOCHELAGA.

The following description of Hochelaga is taken from Parkman :—

Historian's Relation.

"Nothing was visible but its encircling palisades. . They were of trunks of trees set in a triple row. The outer and inner ranges inclined till they met and crossed near the summit, while the upright row between them, aided by transverse braces, gave to the whole an abundant strength. Within were galleries for the defenders, rude ladders to mount them, and magazines of stones to throw down on the heads of the assailants. . . The voyagers entered the narrow portal. Within they saw some fifty of those large, oblong dwellings so familiar in after years to the eyes of the Jesuit apostles in Iroquois and Huron forests. They were about fifty yards in length and twelve or fifteen wide, framed by sapling poles closely covered with sheets of bark, and each containing several fires and several families. In the midst of the town was an open area or public square, a stone's throw in width."

The chief of this town, a feeble old man, begged Cartier to touch his palsied limbs. No sooner had this been done than, to the worthy captain's great confusion, the Indians, who seem to have looked upon the white men as visitors from another world, brought forth all the sick, the lame and the blind to be cured by him. Cartier read to these poor creatures a part of the Gospel of St. John and repeated certain prayers in the hope, it would seem, that better help than he could give would be sent to the poor sufferers. He then distributed presents among his savage hosts and bade them farewell.

Thought Cartier had Supernatural Power.

The weather was growing colder day by day, and by the time the boats arrived at Stadacona, ice was beginning to form in the river. Here he found that his men had begun to prepare for a winter in the wilderness, and before long it was upon them with great severity.

Canadian children of to-day, to whom the winter is a joy, will find it very hard to realize the sufferings of these snow-bound Frenchmen, who had come from a land where frost was never severe and where snow seldom fell — the sunny land of France. They must have been dismayed when they saw not only that the river was sealed with ice but that the snow drifts constantly grew deeper and prevented their moving about without great difficulty. Chilled and disheartened, the sparkling sunshine and biting frost caused them only pain and discomfort. Want of proper food and exercise brought on scurvy. Worse than all, the Indians who were at first friendly visitors seemed to have grown hostile. To deceive them Cartier forced his sick and disabled men to make a great noise of hammering whenever they came near. It was an Indian, nevertheless, who told Cartier of a tree the juice of which proved a cure for scurvy, from which the Frenchmen were suffering.

Hardships in Winter.

At last the spring came. The sailors heard the odd call of the wild geese, flying to their summer home in Greenland bays. The blue-bird chirped his cheery song amid departing snow. Soon the robin whistled, and the gray-bird trilled his welcome lay. Long ere the swallows came to give assurance of summer the Frenchmen had spread their sails and they, too, returned to their home land.

It is not pleasant to have to relate that their last act was one of cowardly and foolish treachery. Donnacona and a number of his chiefs were decoyed on board their vessels and carried off to France. Cartier reached St. Malo in July, 1536.

Unfavorable as his report may have been in some respects, the French king determined to plant a colony in Canada. He had two reasons for doing this. He wanted in the first place to extend the power of France, and in the second place to bring the savages into the fold of the Roman Catholic Church. A French nobleman named Roberval was made Lieutenant-General of Canada and a number of other places about which the king knew little or nothing. The kings of those days had strange ideas of the sort of men needed to face the dangers and endure the hardships of life in a new country. An order was given to Roberval to search the prisons for as many thieves, robbers and other criminals as he chose to take with him. Perhaps we have not even yet got rid of the idea that our natures will change with change of place. With this crowd of vagabonds there sailed also some gentlemen led by hope of gain or zeal for religion to make their homes in the wilderness. There were women, too, of both high and low degree among the number who embarked on these first emigrant ships to Canada. As the five vessels, in which supplies and colonists were to be sent, could not be got ready in the summer of 1541, Cartier was sent in advance to begin the settlement.

Adventurers of High and Low Degree.

When he arrived at Stadacona the Indians asked him what he had done with their chiefs. Cartier said that Donnacona was dead, but that the other chiefs were living like lords in France. The truth was that the captives were all dead. Fearing with good reason the hostility of the savages, Cartier sailed up the St. Lawrence some ten miles above Quebec. Here, near the mouth of the river of Cap Rouge, he landed, cleared some land, planted seed, and built two forts at the top of a cliff and called the place Charlesbourg Royal. Spring and summer passed. Then with the dark November days came disappointment and discontent, perhaps want, for Roberval had not arrived with the expected supplies and reinforcement.

Cartier Returns from France.

Between enemies without and discord within, the exiles spent a wretched winter. As soon as the river was free of ice, Cartier and his colonists sailed for France. In the harbor of St. Johns, Newfoundland, he met Roberval with three ships and two hundred colonists. Astonished and angry, the governor ordered Cartier to return, but to avoid doing so he weighed anchor in the night and sped home.

Roberval and his Colonists.

Pursuing his way, Roberval arrived at Cap Rouge, where he set to work with great energy, and soon an immense building, large enough to hold the whole colony, was erected and called France Roy. A mill was built, but there was no grain to grind, and starvation soon threatened the new colonists. The intense cold of the long winter and the hostility of the Indians added to their misery. Roberval was a stern and vigilant ruler. Offences were quickly detected and severely punished. It must have been a great relief both to the governor and his subjects when Cartier appeared with an order from the king commanding them all to come back to France. Fifty years passed after the return of this unsuccessful expedition before a French sail was again seen on the blue waters of the St. Lawrence.

CHAPTER III.

ACADIA.

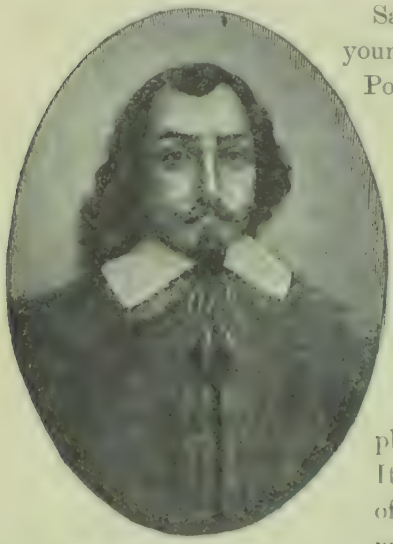
The sixteenth century was near its close before a second attempt was made to establish a colony in North America. Fishermen had crossed the ocean and pursued their calling on the Banks of Newfoundland, along the coasts of the Maritime Provinces or in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, but no Frenchman had left his home under the bright skies of France to dwell among savages and endure the hardships of a Canadian winter.

Voyageurs again Reach Canada.

And yet during a great part of that time France was not a pleasant place to live in. The country was wasted by war. Men could not agree upon the right way to worship the God in whom all believed, nor would the leaders of the ruling party allow those who differed from them to obey the dictates of their reason and conscience. Then came rebellion, followed by the most cruel of all wars, a war waged in the name of religion. But at length peace was restored. A brave, strong king, Henry IV., sat upon the French throne, and men who had spent long years in battle began to look about them for some other employment that would call forth their courage and give scope to their love of adventure. One of these was a French nobleman named Aylmer de Chaste. He had once, at great risk to himself, saved the life of the good King Henry. He now begged that he might, in his old age, be allowed the privilege of bringing to the savages of North America the blessings of the Christian religion. The king at once consented, and in order that de Chaste might have ample means and the fullest

Aylmer de Chaste.

opportunity of carrying out his purpose, made him a grant of a vast tract of land, under the name of Acadia.



SAMUEL DE CHAMPLAIN.

Samuel de Champlain, a gallant young naval officer, and his friend, Pontgrave, a merchant, were sent to find a suitable place for a missionary settlement. Following Cartier's example they steered their course for the Gulf of St. Lawrence. They sailed up that noble river till stopped by rapids. Champlain, who, like all sailors of his time, was seeking a short path to the East, gave to this place the name of La Chine, or China. It was in the immediate vicinity of Hochelaga and in sight of the mountain which Cartier had named *Mont Réal;* but, strange to say, the Indians of Hochelaga and Stadacona had disappeared, and no trace remained of the towns they had inhabited. When Champlain and his companions returned to make their report they found that brave old Aylmer de Chaste, who had been so anxious to end his days in doing good, was dead.

Arrival of the Huguenots.

A Huguenot friend of Henry IV., Sieur de Monts, succeeded to the grant of Acadia. In return for his charter and the sole right to engage in the fur trade and the fisheries, he was to colonize the country and teach Christianity to its inhabitants. The land over which he was given control, now forms the provinces of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island and part of the State of Maine. Its boundaries were never very well defined. In March, 1604, the expedition of De Monts set out in four vessels. He had with him Champlain, a number

of gentlemen, several priests and Huguenot ministers and some mechanics and laborers. Steering farther south than Champlain had done in his former voyage, De Monts first sighted land on the south-east coast of Nova Scotia. Sailing round the peninsula, the voyagers landed at St. Mary's Bay and went inland to explore. A priest named Aubrey lost his way and when, after a long search, he could not be found, a Huguenot minister, who had often disputed with him about religion, was suspected of having killed him. Sixteen days later, a party who had gone back to search for minerals found the poor priest, greatly to the joy of all, and not least, we may well believe, of his old opponent the minister.

In the meantime De Monts' vessel continued on its way. "About twenty-five miles to the north," says an historian who must often have seen the place, "they entered a narrow channel between two lofty hills, and found themselves sailing in a spacious basin some leagues in extent. All around them were vast woods covering elevations which gradually grew to be mountains as they receded from the sea. Little rivers added their contributions to the waters of the great basin, and the wide meadows beyond seemed like a sea bearing a forest on its breast." This noble harbor (now called Annapolis Basin) filled Champlain with admiration, and, struck by its spaciousness and security, he gave it the name of Port Royal. The Baron de Poutrincourt, a friend of De Monts, asked and obtained a grant of this lovely spot.

A Land of Beauty.

Sailing out again into the Bay of Fundy, which they called *Baye Françoise*, De Monts and his company explored its shores and inlets, discovered and named the St. John River, and at length entered Passamaquoddy Bay. Here, on an island near the mouth of the river Ste. Croix, they found a place that could easily be fortified, and that was well situated for a fur-trading station. They named the island Ste. Croix ; and there Champlain erected comfortable dwellings, setting to work with

great energy to strengthen them against attack. But when the gales and storms of the late autumn succeeded the bright sunshine and mild days of September, they found, too late, that they had made the terrible mistake of building where neither wood nor water could be got without a dangerous trip to the mainland. Confinement and want of fresh food brought on scurvy, and before spring nearly half the unfortunate exiles were buried in the frozen ground of their island prison.

Sufferings and Death.

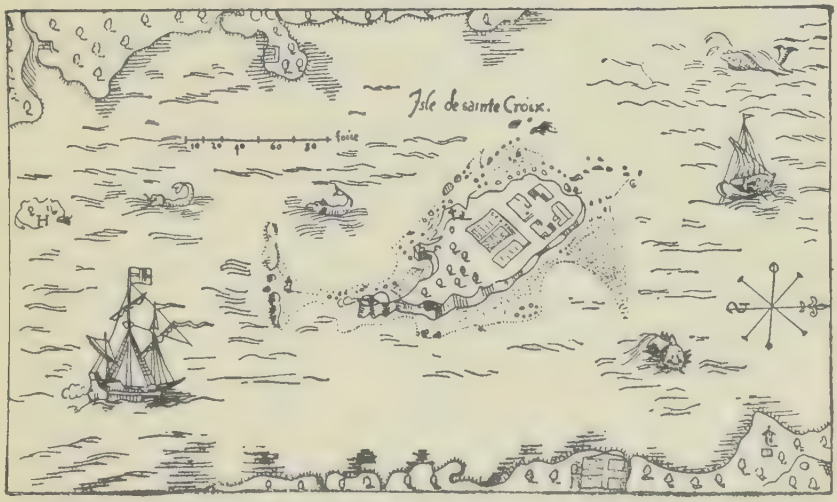
As soon as spring came, Champlain sailed as far south as Plymouth Bay, but could find no place so suitable for settlement as Port Royal. Thither then the remnant of the colony removed, and the town was begun in 1605. De Monts went to France to get supplies; but neither the king nor the company of merchants interested in the fur trade were well satisfied with the accounts he brought, and it was more than a year before he could obtain money enough to procure the much needed supplies. Poutrincourt had preceded De Monts to France, but he returned on July 27th 1606, to settle at Port Royal

The little band of gentlemen now at this place set to work with a will to make a home for themselves. Saw, hammer, axe and spade were busily plied, and by the winter of 1606 a small town had been built and land prepared for next season's crop. None worked harder than Lescarbot, a clever lawyer who had joined the adventurers. Whether fishing, digging, making songs or writing history, he was always capable and always happy. Champlain, remembering the terrible experience of Ste. Croix, kept himself and his companions busy, cheerful and healthy through the winter. They fished and hunted as well as studied the art of cookery with great success; and they boasted that no restaurant in Paris was supplied with such dainties as their little snow bound company enjoyed. In the spring a water-mill was erected, three fishing vessels built and seed sown.

Working Hard for Settlement.

But bad news came. De Monts, who was again absent in France, had lost his charter, and the colony must be abandoned.

Poutrincourt, however, determined, in spite of all, to make his home at Port Royal. He waited till his corn was ripe, he secured mineral specimens, and took wild geese and native animals to France in order to convince the king that the country was worth colonizing. The king confirmed the charter to Port Royal that Poutrincourt had received from De Monts. In 1610 this persevering colonist returned from France with a mis-



ISLAND OF STE. CROIX.

sionary priest. Membertou, the chief of the neighboring tribe of Indians, and twenty-five of his followers were now baptized. Poutrincourt was so rejoiced that he sent his son Biencourt home with the news. The young man found that King Henry had been murdered and that France was ruled by the cruel queen mother, Marie de Medicis.

Indians Baptized.

An ambitious lady, Madame de Guercheville, was now able to obtain leave to plant a Jesuit colony in Acadia. She determined, if possible, to get Port Royal; for young Biencourt, though

a good Catholic, did not like the Jesuits. Biencourt, however, was firmly resolved not to yield up his rights to his father's possessions, but to drive away any who attempted to question his authority over his own domain. Madame de Guercheville sent out an expedition to make a settlement at Mount Desert, near the coast of Maine, but an enemy appeared who knew no difference between these rival French settlers, and who regarded both as trespassers on the rights of the English.

In 1606, a year after the discouraged French adventurers abandoned the island of Ste. Croix and founded Port Royal, the English began the settlement of Virginia. Here in 1613 lived a piratical captain named Samuel Argall.

Colonists Meet Disaster.

He was sent north, with a fleet of eleven vessels, on a fishing expedition, and on his way he came upon the French colonists at work at Mount Desert. He soon overpowered them and carried the survivors to Jamestown. Then he returned to plunder and burn Port Royal. The inhabitants were at work in their fields five miles away and knew nothing of the arrival of the enemy till they saw the smoke of their burning homes. In spite of this disaster, Biencourt remained in Acadia trading with the Indians and supporting himself as best he could.

Eight years after this incident, or in 1621, King James I. granted Acadia to his friend Sir William Alexander. This Scottish king of England changed the name from Acadia to Nova Scotia. In 1625 Charles I. confirmed the grant and formed a colonizing company called the Knights Baronets of Nova Scotia. These great people, of whom there were one hundred and fifty, do not seem to have done much towards settling the colony. Fifteen years after its destruction by Argall, the town of Port Royal was again taken by the English in 1628 under Sir David Kirke, to be restored to France three years later, with the whole of Acadia, by the treaty of St. Germain-en-Laye.

"Knights Baronets of Nova Scotia."

The history of the colony for the next twenty-two years was closely connected with the name of Charles La Tour. When Port Royal was founded, in 1605, a ruined Huguenot gentleman, Claude Etienne, Sieur de La Tour, came to Acadia to seek his fortune. His son Charles became a close friend of Biencourt, who, dying young, left him his possessions. When the war with England broke out, Charles sent his father to France for a body of soldiers, promising, with their aid and that of the Micmac Indians, to defend Acadia from any attack the English could make. Claude La Tour fulfilled his mission successfully and was returning, when, as his ships laden with soldiers and supplies neared Acadia, they were captured and taken back to England. La Tour was introduced to King Charles. He was an elderly gentleman, but he fell in love with one of the Queen's maids of honor, who, like himself, was a French Protestant. He was persuaded to transfer his allegiance to the English king, from whom he received large grants of land for himself and his son in southern Acadia on condition that he would deliver up to England the forts held by the younger La Tour for the French monarch. But he had yet to understand his son's character. Prayers and promises and threats all failed to induce the young man to yield what he had sworn to defend. At last, in desperation, the father raised a band of men and attacked his son's fort of St. Louis, near Cape Sable, but he was defeated and beaten back.

La Tour and his Son Now Appear.

When the war was over Charles La Tour was praised for his gallant conduct and rewarded with a large grant of land and the title of Lieutenant-General of Acadia. Leaving the eastern peninsula, he chose a site at the mouth of the St. John River, which could be easily defended, and which would at the same time be accessible to

The Younger La Tour Rewarded for Bravery.

the Indians who hunted along that river and its numerous branches. He called his new stronghold Fort La Tour. The Company of New France, or the Hundred Associates (see page 31) were now rulers of Acadia as well as of Canada. In 1632 they sent Isaac de Razilly to receive possession of the forts formerly held by the English in Acadia, and to manage the colony. Among the colonists brought out by Razilly were Charles de Menou (better known as Charnisay) and Nicholas Denys. The latter established a number of fishing stations along the coast of Acadia. When Razilly died Charnisay succeeded to his powers and titles. He was a selfish, grasping man, without any feelings of humanity or honor. Not content with his immense possessions he determined to seize upon those of La Tour. This brave and enterprising man, at his fort at the mouth of the St. John, carried on a thriving trade not only with the Indians and with France, but with the Boston merchants. Charnisay persuaded the king of France to empower him to seize La Tour's fort. La Tour refused to deliver it up to his enemy at any one's bidding, and for years Charnisay at Port Royal, and La Tour at St. John carried on a small but very bitter war.

Charnisay, his Unscrupulous Enemy.

Once Madame La Tour crossed the ocean and sought assistance for her distressed husband in France. Not getting it there, she went to England and succeeded in procuring a ship loaded with supplies. She almost fell into the hands of Charnisay — ever vigilant to prevent succor from reaching his enemy — but she managed to outwit him and reach Boston in safety. From that port she sent to her husband's fort the goods that she had secured with so much pains. The very next year, 1645, Charnisay took advantage of his rival's absence to lay siege to his stronghold, Fort La Tour. He attacked it by sea and was driven back. Then he approached by land, and through the treachery of a Swiss sentry he was enabled to reach the

walls. The heroic wife led her little band of faithful soldiers against him, and only delivered the keys of the fort to him when he promised that its defenders should go unharmed. In spite of his promise, Charnisay, when he saw how small the garrison that had withstood him so long really was, proved base and cruel enough to hang the poor fellows and to force Madame La Tour to witness the shocking sight. The poor lady, broken-hearted, died within three weeks.

Charnisay's Foul Deed.

La Tour, who was in Boston when he heard the terrible news, sought assistance from the New England merchants and from Sir David Kirke (then governor of Newfoundland) to regain his lost property and revenge himself on his enemy. Failing in this he went to Quebec, where for some years he seems to have lived an active life, taking part in the dangers of the colony and acquitting himself bravely. Having got rid of La Tour, Charnisay took possession of the whole of Acadia excepting that part where Denys had his fishing stations. He soon seized the property of Denys, who, as well as La Tour, was forced to seek refuge in Quebec. Charnisay did not long enjoy his ill-gotten gains. In 1650 he was drowned in the river of Port Royal.

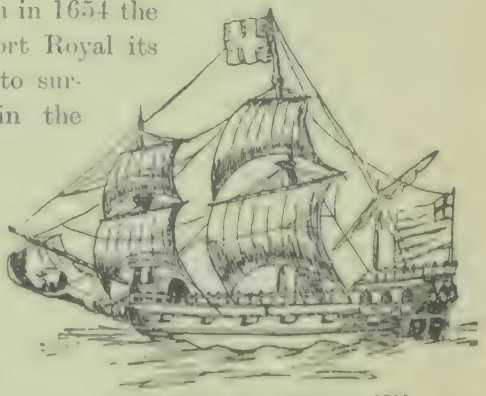
La Tour came back immediately, visited France and was made Lord of all Acadia. Denys also returned to his own territory. Madame Charnisay was at first alarmed for the rights of her children, but La Tour discovered a way by which the children of his rival as well as his own would be sure of an inheritance in Acadia. In 1653 he married the widow of Charnisay and divided the property between her children and his.

La Tour Regains his Power.

But Acadia was again to pass from the sway of the French. Cromwell, who now ruled England, had been at war with Holland. The Dutch owned Manhattan Island and the territory watered by the Hudson. Four armed vessels were

sent out from England to seize these possessions. Before the colonists and the English ships were ready to attack the Dutch settlements, news arrived that peace had been made with Holland. The people of Massachusetts, who had always been jealous of their French neighbors, determined to send the expedition they had been preparing against the Dutch, to attack the colony of Acadia, although France and England were not at war at that time. When in 1654 the fleet appeared before Port Royal its inhabitants were forced to surrender, and once again the British flag floated over the little town. The French demanded its restoration, but Cromwell determined to keep it and all Acadia.

English Take Acadia.



AN ENGLISH MAN-OF-WAR, 1612.

Thus La Tour once more lost his possessions. Less scrupulous, perhaps, than he had been in his younger days, he made a plan to regain them. He set out for England and showed Cromwell the deed by which Charles I. had granted to his father and himself a great part of Nova Scotia. His mission was looked upon with such favor, that he (with Thomas Temple and William Crowne) received a grant of land from Lunenburg, Nova Scotia, to the River St. George in Maine, a territory larger than the whole of Great Britain. La Tour, who was now an old man, sold out his rights to Temple, who spent a great deal of money in improving the country. When Charles II. was restored to the English throne, he created Temple governor of Nova Scotia. In 1668, the much wronged governor was forced to deliver up all the forts of Acadia and the territory itself to the Chevalier de Grand Fontaine. This

came about through the Treaty of Breda made between England and France, in which the worthless king of England promised to exchange Acadia for half the little island of St. Christopher in the West Indies. In the sixty years that had passed since De Monts and Champlain, full of hope and courage, began to colonize Acadia, very little had been accomplished. A few half-ruined forts, used chiefly as trading-posts, an occasional fishing station along the north or east coast, and two or three farming settlements were the only signs that civilized man had attempted to take possession of the wealth which land and sea, mine and forest, were ready to yield to industry and enterprise. The first census taken after the Treaty of Breda returned only 441 inhabitants and about as many acres of cultivated land. But the missionaries had during all these years been working among the natives, and had persuaded great numbers of them to accept the Catholic religion. To this day the Indians of the eastern Maritime Provinces, almost without exception, continue true to the old faith, as taught by the French missionaries.

Acadia once more Under French Rule.

About the year 1670, the French Minister Colbert and the chief officers of the Canadian Government set to work with great energy to build up the colony of Acadia. Farming settlements were made at Mines, Chignecto and on the shores of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The marshes at the head of the Bay of Fundy were, by means of dikes, transformed into rich meadows. Young noblemen were encouraged to take great estates in this western wilderness. Many of these *gentilshommes* were not satisfied to lead the dull life of pioneer farmers. They engaged in the fur-trade, and often left the rude civilization of the infant colony for the wild, free life of the forest. They frequently married Indian wives and became the real chiefs of a savage crew. One of the most noted of these *coureurs-de-bois*, as they were called, was St. Castin, who made his home on the Penobscot, near the frontier of New England. He was feared

and hated by his English neighbors, but he seems to have been able to set them at defiance. It was largely owing to St. Castin and his fellow *coureurs-de bois* that a fierce border warfare was carried on by the French and Indians in Acadia against the farmers of New England.



A COUREUR-DE-BOIS.

The backwoods farmers, hunters and traders of Massachusetts and New Hampshire usually gathered their families for protection into little stockaded villages. It often happened that the people of one of these settlements were awakened in the dead of night by a crowd of painted, yelling savages who had contrived to get inside the stockade and surround their dwellings, when a scene of horrible confusion followed. Nor were the English always blameless. They hated and feared the Indians, and often treated them with injustice and want of good faith. They learned to their cost that though the savages sometimes returned acts of kindness very generously, they never failed to avenge an injury.

Finally Ceded to the English.

In 1690 Sir William Phips, governor of Massachusetts, seized Port Royal to punish the French for their part in the outrages of the preceding year. In 1697 the fort was restored by the treaty of Ryswick, but was taken thirteen years later, during Queen Anne's War, by General Nicholson. In 1713 the colony of Acadia was by the treaty of Utrecht finally ceded to the English; and the name of the town of Port Royal was changed to Annapolis, in honor of the English queen. The French still kept Cape Breton (*Ile Royale*) and Prince Edward Island (*Ile St. Jean*).

CHAPTER IV.

CHAMPLAIN.

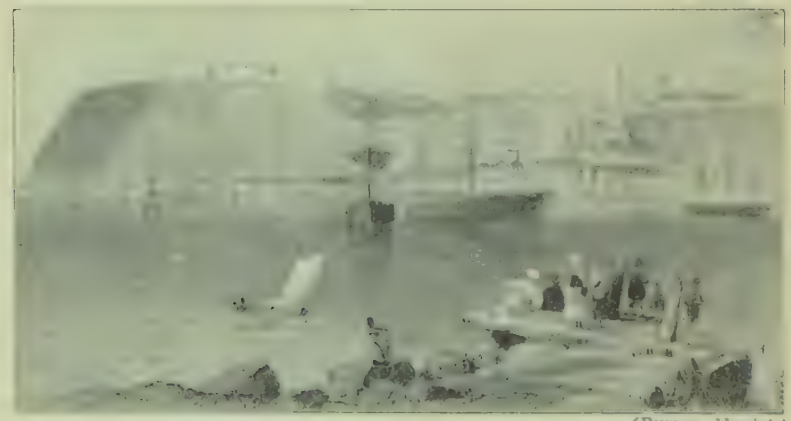
When the enemies of De Monts succeeded in persuading the king to take from him the grant of Acadia, he and his friend Champlain sought and obtained leave to carry on the fur-trade in the valley of the St. Lawrence, and to make a settlement there.

While De Monts and the companies that followed him, traded with the Indians for the beaver skins and other beautiful furs which they sold at great profit to the fine gentlemen and ladies of Europe, Champlain spent his time in trying to plant a French colony in the wilderness. He preached or sent preachers to the savages. He helped them to fight their enemies. He explored the rivers and lakes which then and for nearly two centuries after formed the great highways of Eastern Canada.

Champlain's Arduous Labors.

Very briefly we shall try to outline the story of his life during the twenty-seven years he spent in Canada. After visiting the little trading station of Tadousac, which the French fur-traders had established at the mouth of the Saguenay, Champlain in 1608 ascended the St. Lawrence to the place where, more than seventy years before, Cartier had climbed the precipice to visit the Indian town of Stadacona. Here was no sign of life. The town had disappeared. Champlain saw with a soldier's eye that a fort could be built there which would command the river. It was, moreover, an excellent spot for a trading station. Nature had made the place so strong that it could easily be rendered impregnable by the art of man. He called it Quebec—an Indian name for a strait or narrows. He very soon made a

clearing and erected a fort and dwellings. But winter came on with its long period of enforced idleness. Scurvy followed, and carried off twenty of the twenty-eight inhabitants of Quebec. Early in the spring a ship arrived from France with supplies and more men, and hope and courage returned to the little band of colonists.



(From an old print.)

QUEBEC.

During the winter Champlain had been visited by half-starved bands of the roving Algonquin nation. He had given the poor wretches what succor he could spare from his scanty store.

Helping the Algonquin Indians.

Now from the distant Ottawa came a request for help of another kind. Here dwelt in great peril of their lives a powerful Algonquin tribe. Many miles farther west lived a nation who shared their danger. These were the Hurons. They had their homes near the lake which still bears their name. To the south across Lake Ontario, in what is now the state of New York, dwelt the Iroquois or Five Nation Indians. Of all Indians, these were the fiercest, the bravest and the most cunning. They were never at peace and were never satisfied while an enemy remained alive. Now they seemed determined

to destroy the Algonquins and Hurons who lived north of them, and who by their position could control the fur-trade of the great lakes and rivers. These two nations had banded together against their terrible enemy, and begged Champlain to join them. Anxious to gain their friendship and secure their trade, he consented to accompany them in their invasion of the Iroquois country.

The savages came to Quebec, and after the war-feasts and dances were over, Champlain and eleven of his men set sail in a shallop, accompanied by his dusky, naked allies in their light birch-bark canoes. They passed Lake St. Peter, entered the Richelieu and made their way for many miles up its waters. The Indians had told him that he could take his vessel into the Iroquois country, but he soon found that this could not be done. Great rapids barred the way and it was impossible to carry his heavy boat, as the Indians did their birch-bark canoes, over the portages so as to avoid the rapids. Accordingly he sent back his shallop with such of his men as chose to return, while he with two companions travelled on in the Indian fashion. The river widened into a lake, now called Lake Champlain, then narrowed and again spread out into a tranquil sheet of water—Lake George. Near the outlet of the latter, where long afterward the French built Ticonderoga, they met a large band of the Iroquois. A battle took place in the woods which bordered the lake. The Iroquois, sure of victory, advanced to meet their enemy, led by three plumed chiefs. They paused when they saw the white men clad in their shining armor and carrying swords and guns. As the Indians prepared to discharge their arrows, Champlain fired and shot two of the chiefs. A second shot echoed by surrounding rocks and woods, so terrified the Iroquois that they fled, leaving many of their number to be taken prisoners. These would have

Champlain Terrifies the Iroquois.

been tortured after the Indian manner, but Champlain had influence enough with the savages to prevent their putting more than one of them to death in that way in his presence. In the same summer another roving band of Iroquois was beaten by the help of the Frenchmen's firearms.

Champlain spent the greater part of the next two years in France, trying with little success to have regulations made to prevent the greedy fur traders from quarrelling with one another and cheating and ill using the Indians. In 1612 he was again in the wilderness. This time, deceived by an impostor, he sought, by way of the Ottawa River, the northern sea through which he hoped to find the long sought road to India. Perhaps no one, except the lumbermen who spend their lives on the banks of this turbulent river, can understand the hardships which Champlain endured on this journey. When, at length, he reached an Indian settlement at or near the Island of Allumette, he found that the tale he had been told was false and that no river rose near the sources of the Ottawa which would open up a road to the East.

Very soon after his return to Quebec, this indefatigable man was on the ocean again. If he had not found what he sought, he had seen and learned to know many tribes of Indians. It was high time, he thought, that some one undertook the task of converting them. It was not hard to find men willing to encounter the dangers and hardships which were in store for those who would teach a new religion to the fierce and fickle savages of New France. The Recollet Friars, among the best and most devoted of the priests of France, were ready to come. It was a more difficult matter to get money to send them — for they themselves had none. But Champlain succeeded in this also. In the summer of 1615 three Recollets arrived in Quebec. The first mass was celebrated on the shore. How welcome the familiar sound of the solemn service must have been to the exiled

To Convert the Indians.

dwellers in the wilderness! One of the missionaries was soon roving with the Montaignais, the most wretched tribe of the Algonquin nation, on their winter hunting expedition. He found his self-appointed task impossible. The smoke of the wigwams and perhaps the glare of the snow so injured his sight that he was forced to return. The next spring he set out again, and it is said he went so far north that he discovered the Esquimaux. Another friar went on a mission to the Huron country. Very

The Recollet Friars.



CHAMPLAIN'S TRAVELS.

shortly after, Champlain followed him, making his way, as before, up the Ottawa to the Mattawa, one of its tributaries, by which he reached Lake Nipissing. From that lake he followed the French River into the Georgian Bay. Landing on its southern shore, he was soon among the Indians of the Huron nation.

Father Le Caron had come to preach the Gospel of the Prince of Peace. Champlain, a devoted Christian, was on his way to help the Hurons make war against the Iroquois. He was

welcomed and feasted in all the towns of his savage allies. It is thought that altogether these Indians numbered about thirty thousand. Their towns were built on the same plan as Hochelaga, which has been already described. Father Le Caron, too, was well received, and Champlain had the satisfaction of taking part in the first religious service performed in the Huron country.

On the Warpath with the Hurons.

After spending some time in exploring this region, which he thought very beautiful, Champlain set out with the Hurons on the warpath. They traversed the wide neck of land between Lake Simcoe and Lake Ontario, crossed the lake and soon reached a town of the Onondagas. The Hurons were foolishly bold. The Iroquois had by this time become familiar with firearms through the Dutch colonists of eastern New York. The invaders were defeated. Champlain was wounded. The Hurons would not take him back to Quebec, and he was forced to spend the winter with them. A friendly chief, Durantel, was his host. In the spring they journeyed together to Quebec, accompanied by the Indians carrying their furs down the rivers. Great was the rejoicing over his return and great was the need for his presence. His fort and habitation were already going to ruin. The merchants were quarrelling among themselves. The Recollets had begun to farm in a very humble way. Champlain himself took great pride and interest in his garden, and a family named Hébert worked with the steady industry of the French peasant at a plot of ground behind the fort. There were in the colony but two or three other families. In all Quebec there were only fifty or sixty people, most of them engaged in one way or other in the fur-trade.

At Tadoussac, Three Rivers and Montreal were small trading stations, where in summer the Indians came with their canoe loads of furs, and carried away blankets, knives, guns and the

terrible "fire-water" which the white man had taught them to crave. These stations were lonely places in the winter. All around stretched the vast forest, the home of countless tribes of wild animals and equally wild and far more dangerous tribes of men. For twelve years more, 1616 to 1628, Champlain labored vainly to make his colony grow and prosper. Fur-traders really ruled the country; and every tree that was felled, every white family who made its home in the wilderness, lessened their chances of making great fortunes. The missionaries toiled with praiseworthy zeal, but what could six men do to convert a heathen continent?

Lonely Trading-Stations.

At length a change was made. All the trading companies were suppressed. Cardinal Richelieu, the clever and powerful prime minister of Louis XIII., formed the Company of New France. It consisted of One Hundred Associates, of whom the great Cardinal was the head. Many nobles, rich merchants and other persons of influence joined it. Champlain was made their governor in Canada. They were given possession of the whole of New France. They were to have a monopoly of the fur trade always, and of all other trade for fifteen years. The only industries open to all were the whale and cod fisheries.

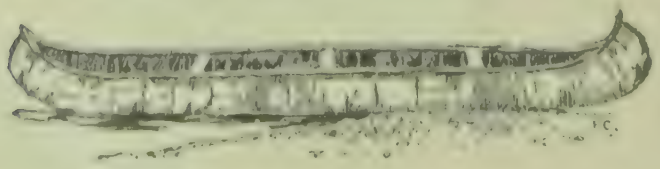
Advent of the One Hundred Associates.

On their part, the Company was bound to convey to New France during the year 1628 two or three hundred men of all trades, and before the year 1643 to increase the number to four thousand persons of both sexes, to lodge and support them for three years; and, when this time expired, to supply them with cleared lands for their maintenance. Every settler must be a Frenchman and a Catholic, and for every settlement at least three priests must be provided. This agreement was made in 1627, and in April, 1628, the Company sent out four armed vessels and several transports to bring supplies and colonists to

Quebec. While they were on their way, an English admiral, David Kirke, sent word to Champlain to surrender. Champlain refused, though he and his fellow-colonists were almost starving. Then the English seized the French ships and sailed home with their prize. The next spring they again appeared before Quebec. This time nothing was left for the brave governor but to surrender the post he had spent so many years in founding. His only condition was that Kirke should take the inhabitants of Quebec back to France. But by this time the war was over, and Charles I. restored the conquered territory. It is said that many Frenchmen thought that the colonization of Canada should be given up, and that it took all Champlain's eloquence to persuade the king to continue the expensive and difficult task. He was, however, successful, and in the spring of 1633 returned to take command of Quebec.

Some years before this, the Recollets had called to their aid the Jesuit fathers, and Champlain hoped that, with their help, the work so dear to his heart — the conversion of the Indians — would at length be successful. He did not live to see the result of the experiment. In less than two years his busy brain and gallant heart were still. He died on Christmas Day, 1635. The lives of few nobler men are recorded in history. A brave soldier, an intrepid and tireless explorer, an ardent patriot, a devoted Christian and withal a pure, unselfish, truthful man, Canadians of every creed and of every race may well unite to honor Samuel de Champlain, the founder of our country.

Death of the Devoted Champlain.



CHAPTER V.

THE JESUIT MISSIONS.

Champlain's chief desire had been that the Indians should become Christians. He had lived long enough among them to understand how hard it would be to persuade those proud, revengeful savages to follow Him who taught His disciples the virtues of love and purity and self-forgetfulness. The task had not been made easier by the conduct of the French fur-traders, who were led to the colony by greed of gain. The Recollets had made a beginning and their work was carried on and extended by men who were peculiarly fitted to face the dangers and hardships of missionary life in the wilds of Canada.

The Early Missionaries.

In quiet convents in France and Flanders, men had been trained from boyhood to undertake any task that would spread their religion. They belonged to a Roman Catholic order founded by a devout Spaniard, Ignatius Loyola. He gave this order the name of "The Society of Jesus," and its members became known to the world as Jesuits. Just before Champlain's death a little band of these priests came to Quebec. Their Superior was Paul Le Jeune. His mission was to convert the Algonquin Indians, who pitched their tents near Quebec. To help him in this work he engaged as his interpreter an Indian called Pierre, who had spent some years in France. This man was a great trial to the good father. Often he would give him an Indian word meaning something quite different from the one Le Jeune wished to use, and the priest would be startled by a roar of laughter in answer to his most solemn addresses. Pierre got drunk whenever he could, and ran off when most needed.

Father Paul Le Jeune.

Yet Le Jeune learned from his perverse assistant. He would gather the little Indian children about him, and by presents of sweets or fruit, induce them to commit to memory simple prayers and hymns, and to make the sign of the cross.



PAUL LE JEUNE.

Not satisfied with the work he could do at home, Le Jeune accompanied a band of Algonquins on their winter hunt. He tramped with the savages through the deep snow, helped to carry their loads and suffered with them hunger and cold. He lay with them in their crowded, smoke-filled wigwams, surrounded by noisy children and snarling dogs. To find time and quietness to read his breviary, he stole out into the moonlit waste of snow. The tired and often starving Indians found little time and less inclination to listen to the teaching of the missionary. Weary and discouraged, he returned to Quebec in the spring, convinced that the Faith must first be preached to Indians who had some settled place to live in. It must not be thought that the Algonquins were neglected. Le Jeune was not the last of the Jesuits who shared their hard life. These wandering tribes became Christians, weak and ignorant, indeed, and often falling into their old vices, yet holding fast to their new faith.

An Exemplary Priest.

Where, then, should the missionaries be sent? Far away, near the shores of Lake Huron, dwelt the nation of that name which Champlain had visited some years before. They lived in towns and were less degraded than the wandering tribes who so often sought relief at Quebec. Thither in the year 1633 went

three missionaries—Brébeuf, Daniel and Davost. The way was long, tedious and dangerous. Through fear of the Iroquois they had to take the route up the Ottawa, across Lake Nipissing, down French River, and along the shores of the Georgian Bay. Their Indian guides were unfriendly. Rapids had to be stemmed and cataracts avoided. Many times they had to carry their canoes for miles over rocks and through thick forests. Even Brébeuf, a man of great energy and undaunted bravery, was often weary and discouraged.

But the long journey came to an end at last. The Hurons treated the missionaries kindly and allowed them to settle among them. They made few converts at first, but they bided their time. Wherever there was sickness or trouble, the black-robed visitors came to bring, if they could, help or relief, ever on the watch for a chance to baptize a dying child or receive into the Church an expiring penitent. Though their life was lonely and full of hardship, their patience never failed them. But greater troubles awaited them. In 1636 the smallpox came. The lodges were unclean and unhealthy, and the Indians died by hundreds. The little children seldom recovered. The fathers went about among the wretched patients, carrying them now a bowl of soup, again a few raisins dipped in wine, or some simple remedy brought with them from France—always praying, preaching and baptizing. Often they were roughly received, but nothing was allowed to prevent their visits or to keep them from treating the sick with unvarying kindness.

Patient Labors of other Missionaries.

In their despair the wretched savages blamed the "black robes" as the cause of their miseries, and threatened to kill them. But though, for a time, they never entered a lodge without expecting to fall beneath a blow from the hatchet of an Indian concealed at the door, though several of them were attacked, they were saved from death by their undaunted bear-

ing. They went about their daily tasks of mercy and piety in the very shadow of death, as though no such feelings as fear or dread could enter their breasts. Famine succeeded pestilence, and to add to the dangers of the doomed nation, the Iroquois began to lie in wait for any party who ventured out to hunt or to trade.



MISSIONARY AND INDIANS.

Gradually, however, the missionaries won their way. In many of the Huron towns there were as many Christians as heathen. The wisdom, the kindness, and the self-denying zeal of the priests who shared with them every toil, danger and discomfort, gained the hearts of the savages. Nor did they forget the bodies of the Indians, whose souls they were so anxious to save. At Sainte Marie, the centre of the Huron missions, the Jesuits had, in the year 1647, fifteen years after Brebeuf's arrival, so large a farm that they were able to feed thousands of their hungry flock. But, alas! their prosperity came to a sudden and a terrible end. In the years 1647, 1648 and 1649, great war-parties of Iroquois came to the Huron

country, determined to destroy the whole nation. The Indians seem to have felt that resistance was useless. They went away on their hunting parties, leaving their towns undefended. At St. Joseph, one bright July morning in 1648, the Indian warriors were all absent. The priest, père Daniel, was in the church. At the first terrible cry of "The Iroquois!" he rushed out, called upon the men left to defend the place, and urged those who could not fight to escape. Then he went back to the church, where terror-stricken men and women were crowding, begging for baptism. He remained there ministering to one group after another till he was stricken down. The town was burned and nearly seven hundred prisoners taken. St. Louis and St Ignace were destroyed in a similar way early the next spring. Every cruelty that the most depraved imagination could conceive of was practised. At St. Louis, Brébeuf and Lallement were found. They were bound to stakes and tortured. Brébeuf allowed no complaints to escape his lips, but tried to comfort his captive converts and his brother priest Lallement, whose slender frame and gentle spirit were ill-suited to bear torture. In four hours the heroic soul of Brébeuf was driven from his strong body, but his friend endured the torture seventeen. In every town of the Hurons and neighboring tribes such scenes were enacted, till at last the miserable remnant of what had been a great Indian nation, sought shelter at Lorette, near Quebec, or among the tribes to the west of the Great Lakes. Thus perished the missionaries and their missions, leaving behind them only a record of a devoted zeal, which has seldom been equalled and never excelled.

Disturbed by the Invading Iroquois.

Fire and Massacre.



(From an old print.)

MONTREAL.

CHAPTER VI.

MONTREAL.

The "Jesuit Relations."

While Brébeuf and his brother priests were toiling to establish their missions among the Hurons, they wrote minute and graphic accounts of their doings and sufferings. These *Relations*, as they were called, were sent home year by year by their superior, Father Le Jeune. There they were published and eagerly read by the religious Catholics. These accounts created in the more zealous a longing to do something toward bringing the savages of New France into that Church which they loved more than anything else in the world. A small band of these enthusiasts resolved to found a mission on the island of Montreal. It was, at first, to consist of a hospital, a school and a church. Its inhabitants were to be priests and nuns, and soldiers sent to protect them.

No more dangerous spot could have been chosen. The island lay right in the path of the Iroquois as they sallied forth north and west in search of their human prey. Yet perilous and difficult as it was, the enterprise was accomplished. The Com-

pany of Montreal obtained a grant of the island from its owner, Lauson. In 1642 Sieur de Maisonneuve, a brave and pious soldier, appointed governor of Montreal, set sail from France with forty men, a lady named Mademoiselle Mance (who was to take charge of the hospital), two women and a young girl. When this little band arrived at Quebec, the governor tried to persuade Maisonneuve to settle on the island of Orleans, declaring that the Iroquois would not allow anyone to land at Montreal. Maisonneuve declared he would fulfil his commission "if every tree were an Iroquois." He was obliged, however, to winter near Quebec, though Montmagny, the governor, was so jealous of him that he would not entertain him. As soon as possible in the spring Maisonneuve went up the St. Lawrence. On a delightful May day the expedition landed. An altar was erected on a lovely spot near a little river, and mass was said. Fortifications were made and a hospital and a convent built. Thither came sick and wounded Indians to share with their white brethren the kind offices of the hospital sisters who, though gentle and refined, bore cold and danger without a murmur, and waited on their rude patients with the love and meekness they had learned from their Master. In later days, little children came to Montreal to be cared for and taught by one of the kindest and wisest as well as the bravest of Canadian teachers—Marguerite Bourgeoys. This tiny settlement has grown to be the greatest city in Canada. If any of us should ever visit it, let us think, as we pass through its busy streets, worship in one of its grand churches or attend any of its great schools, of the courage, the faith and the piety of the men and women who, more than two centuries and a half ago, laid its foundation.

Sieur de Maisonneuve.



MAISONNEUVE.

Gentle Sisters of the Faith.

Would the Jesuits attempt to teach Christianity to those enemies of the French and their Indian allies—the murderous Iroquois? Let the following narrative answer the question. Among the missionaries sent into the Huron country, was a

A Fearless Priest.

priest named Jogues, a man, like Lallement, of a gentle nature, yet active and very brave. On the shores of Nottawasaga Bay lived the Tobacco Nation, a fierce and savage race. To them Jogues and a companion were sent. When the children saw them toiling through the snowdrifts, they cried out that Famine and Pest were coming. In spite of abuse and suspicion, they went from town to town till they were driven from the last by the young men and only saved their lives by fleeing into the darkness.

Again Jogues undertook a distant mission. This time he went to Sault Ste. Marie, between Lakes Superior and Huron, where he preached to two thousand Algonquins assembled there. He had no sooner returned to the Huron country than he, with a party of Indian traders, hurried to Quebec for much needed supplies. Having procured them, the savages, several Huron converts, and Jogues with two Frenchmen, were just about to leave Lake St. Peter when they were attacked by the Iroquois. The Hurons fled and Jogues might have escaped, but when he saw his friends and his converts captured he gave himself up. One of the Frenchmen, in self-defence, fired at and killed an Iroquois. The savages turned fiercely upon him, and as Jogues threw himself between them and their victim, they attacked him

Terrible Tortures.

with the fierceness of wild beasts. The prisoners were then driven through the hot August woods to the distant Iroquois town. There they suffered tortures too terrible for description. One of his friends was killed, but poor Jogues was left alive to bear indignities and sufferings which made life a curse. Yet he taught those who would listen to him, and baptized infants whenever he could approach them without being seen by their watchful elders. He

meekly performed the most menial tasks, and obeyed the most unreasonable orders of the Indians, whose servant he was; but if his masters spoke insultingly of God or religion, they found that he whom they considered a spiritless slave, turned upon them with the fierceness of a prophet of old, and rebuked their wickedness. At length, maimed and disfigured, Jogues escaped. He had sent a warning letter to Quebec. The Indians had found this out, and planned to kill him. When he learned of his danger he was among some Dutch traders. To their everlasting credit they contrived his escape at the risk of offending the Iroquois who were, at that time, friendly neighbors and profitable customers.

When Jogues arrived in France there was great rejoicing. But the zealous missionary was not satisfied with a life of ease. He returned to Canada in 1645. Almost immediately he was sent to conclude a treaty of peace with his old enemies, the Mohawks. This duty fulfilled, he went back to Quebec. Once again he set out for the place where he had suffered so much, this time as a messenger from the Prince of Peace. On his way he was warned that the fickle savages had turned against him and would kill him as a sorcerer. But no dread of personal danger would turn this faithful soldier of the Cross from his purpose. He tried to pacify his superstitious enemies, but they would not listen. He received his death blow as he was entering one of the lodges to attend a feast to which he had been deceitfully invited. Among those whom the world delights to honor, how few have displayed such bravery and constancy of purpose as this humble Canadian missionary!

Mohawk Treachery.

CHAPTER VII.

FRENCH CANADA.

We have seen something of the trials, the successes and failures of the first explorers and missionaries of Canada. We shall now try to learn a little about the life which the French-Canadians lived and how they were governed.

The French Element.

It will be remembered that during the last few years of Champlain's life, the Company of New France, or the Hundred Associates, was formed. This Company was organized in 1627 and lost its charter in 1663. We have sketched the history of Canada under its rule up to 1649, the year when the Iroquois destroyed both the Huron nation and its devoted missionaries.

Turning from the Huron country to Canada itself, we see almost as melancholy a picture. The settlers, of whom previous to 1663 there were not more than three thousand, lived in or around the fortified trading stations of Quebec, Montreal and Three Rivers. Why did the colonist make his home in the shadow of the fort? Because he was not safe for one moment from the attack of the Iroquois. Far more dangerous than wild beasts, the prowling savages lay in wait for their prey. They knew no pity and they missed no opportunity. Did a poor woman venture out to reap the ripened corn patch she had hoed in among the stumps, she and her helpless babe were either killed or carried off prisoners to meet a worse fate. Priests were scared as they went about on their errands of duty or mercy, laborers in the field, hunters in the forest, the voyageur in his canoe—till the whole colony was panic stricken. Even the soldiers dared not venture singly or in small parties beyond the walls of the fort.

The most perilous place in the hardly beset colony was Montreal. It lay right in the track of the Iroquois. No one in the town—trader, soldier, priest or nun—knew a moment's respite from the most wearing and terrible anxiety. The Canadians were on the verge of despair and many of them abandoned the country and returned to France. At length a little company of sixteen young men, led by Adam Daulac (or Dollard), Sieur des Ormeaux, commandant of the garrison of Montreal, resolved to sacrifice themselves to the good of their country, and went to the Long Sault Rapids to meet a great Iroquois party of seven hundred warriors on their way to destroy the colony. They were afterwards joined by a Huron chief with forty followers and four Algonquins. In the fight which followed, all the Hurons except Annahotaha, their chief, deserted. As the story is so well told by Parkman, I shall only say here that the little band of heroes sold their lives so dearly that, when after eight days they were at last overpowered, the Indians had had enough of fighting, and Canada was saved from the destruction threatened. No braver feat of arms was ever done in any country.

On the Verge of Despair.



(From an old print.)

HEROES OF THE LONG SAULT.

All this time the missionaries had not been idle. With wonderful address and boldness, they had gone right into the Iroquois country and established mission stations among the terrible warriors of the Five Nations. Converts were no doubt

made, and as time went on, more than one band of so-called Christian Iroquois moved to Canada; but, on the whole, the nature of the savages was unchanged, and the French suffered, with little intermission, from their attacks.

Vicar-General Laval.

In the meantime a man had been sent out to control the Canadian Church and direct the labors of its priests. His name was Laval. At first he was appointed Vicar-General of the Pope in Canada, and, when in 1659 Quebec was made a bishopric, he was ordained its first bishop, but from the beginning he not only ruled the Church, but took a prominent part in the government of the colony.

He instituted a seminary in Quebec where the priests were educated. He founded a farming and industrial school for the sons of farmers or mechanics, and established a mission school for Indians. Governor succeeded governor, but for more than a quarter of a century Laval lived in the colony, directing and controlling the Church and fighting for what he considered her good, with a boldness that nothing could daunt and a resolution that would not be moved by the strongest and most powerful opposition. Coming to Canada when it was a wilderness, he obtained large grants of land which he bequeathed to the seminary. Laval University is supported by funds from these bequests, and fittingly commemorates the name of the first Roman Catholic bishop of Canada.

Dependence upon the Fur Trade.

It must be remembered that up to 1663 Canada was ruled by a fur trading company, and that the greater number of the colonists were, in one way or another, dependent on the fur trade for a living. Every spring a fleet of canoes came down the St. Lawrence and the Ottawa to Montreal. Indians from the Great Lakes, the banks of the Ohio or the western plains, sent or brought furs to the great annual sale held there. At first the Company allowed no one but its own members to buy the

furs. Then they gave permission to the colonists to engage in the trade, only stipulating that an annual payment should be made them for the privilege. As was to be expected, a few clever and not too honest persons obtained control of the traffic, robbing both the colonists and the Company. The Company sent an officer to investigate the charges brought against these merchants. His proceedings gave great offence not only to many of the colonists, but to Bishop Laval.

The Bishop had another cause of complaint against the Company and most of the governors who had been sent out by them. One of the articles given to the Indians in exchange for their furs was brandy. This brandy changed the savages into madmen. The work of the mission was completely destroyed. It was this sale of brandy to the Indians, the trouble with the agent of the Company, and the necessity that the Iroquois should be conquered, that brought about a change in the government of Canada.

Colony Ruled by France.

Colbert, the Minister of Louis XIV., formed a plan by which the King's government was to take upon itself the management of the affairs of the colony. The King of France was to be represented in Canada by a governor. This dignitary was to have control of the troops, make peace or war and conduct any business with foreign nations. He was generally a nobleman, sometimes of high rank. Associated with the Governor was an official called the Intendant. He was the man of business for the colony, and its chief judge. Nothing was too small for his attention, while, on the other hand, as he held the purse, no great undertaking could be carried through against his will. It was the Intendant who kept the king informed of all that went on in the colony. The bishop, too, shared in the government. He was to rule the Church. As all Canadians were members of the Roman Catholic Church, the bishop had far more power in the civil affairs of the colony than we in these days would think possible.

Joined with these three officials was a Council consisting at first of five, afterwards of seven, and finally of twelve members. The power of appointing them was first given to the governor and bishop, but as this was the cause of some trouble, the king henceforth made the appointments. All the members—Governor, Intendant, Bishop and Councillors—were called the Superior Council. They did the work which in our time is performed by the governor, the parliament, the courts of justice and the magistrates of the country. It will be seen that the colonists had no voice

A Council Formed.



INTENDANT'S PALACE, QUEBEC.
Built 1684. *Destroyed by fire 1713.*

in their own government. If the Council had worked harmoniously together, the affairs of the colony might have been well managed, but this was not often the case. There was always jealousy between the governor and the intendant, and often between the bishop and one or both of these dignitaries, and members of the Council sided with the leaders.

The first important act of the Royal Government was to get the king (in 1665) to send out the Marquis De Tracy with a famous regiment, called *Carignan Salières*, to punish the Iroquois. Fierce as the savages were, they fled before the advance of the trained warriors, with their glittering swords and splendid uniforms. Tracy burned their fortified towns and destroyed their stores of food. He built forts along the Richelieu and

Indians Meet their Match.

at its mouth, to check the future advance of the savages. In the following spring, ambassadors from each nation of the Iroquois came to Quebec to seek for peace, and it was twenty years before Canada was again troubled with the Indians.

Organizing the Colony.

In 1665 Talon, the first and most famous of Canada's Intendants, began to organize the colony. He was sent out among the emigrants to instruct them in their work. No man ever fulfilled a commission more faithfully. He showed the country people how to farm and induced the king to send them horses and cattle. He procured wool and flax for the Ursuline Nuns, that they might teach the women how to spin and weave. He built vessels and loaded one with salted fish, timber, etc., to send to the West Indies in exchange for sugar. He made tar, established a tannery and persuaded one of the seigneurs to engage in the manufacture of potash. He discovered and operated mines and set men to work at the fisheries. He tried the then impossible task of building a road to Acadia. Explorers sent out by him traversed the northern wilds to Hudson Bay, explored the Great Lakes and discovered the Mississippi. He took possession, in the name of the King of France, of Lakes Huron and Superior, the territory drained by them and the rivers running into them.

The Seigneurial Tenure.

The land provided for the colonists was held by what is called the *Seigneurial Tenure*, under which an estate was granted to a French gentleman called a *seigneur*, who swore faith and homage to the king. If the seigneury was very large, this seigneur would, perhaps, grant part of it to another seigneur on the same condition. Their oath bound these gentlemen to fight for the king in time of need. The only other condition attached to these grants was that the land should be cleared within a certain time, otherwise the seigneury was forfeited. The seigneur granted his land to settlers, called *censitaires*, who paid

a small yearly rental and performed certain services for the seigneur. If one of these tenants should sell his holding, he must pay one twelfth of the price to the seigneur; if the seigneur sold his seigneury, he must pay one-fifth of its price to the king. The seigneur generally chose the most beautiful and fertile piece of land for his own home, and on it built a house, a fort, a chapel and a mill. The mill was also, in many cases, a fort. Long before this work was finished the habitants or settlers began to arrive, and the remainder of the land was granted to



THE SEIGNEURY AT LACHINE.

(1) Mill. *(3) Chapel.* *(5) Barn.*
(2) Priest's House. *(4) Seigneur's House.* *(6) Palisades.*
(7) Bastions.

each in his turn. Sometimes they built their houses close by the seigneur's, and all were surrounded by a strong palisade. But very often the habitant did not like to walk or paddle so far to his farm, several miles distant; in which case a little cabin was built on the river's bank in front of his allotment. The first habitants were kept by the king while they cleared their own land, but later each had to clear a certain number of acres for new comers.

The dwellings completed, seigneur and habitant alike set about getting married. The seigneur, perhaps, returned to France to bring back his bride. Few families came out in the early days of the colony. The habitant was obliged to look for his wife at Quebec. The king each year sent out one or more vessels laden with young girls. As soon as the ships arrived, young men went to choose a wife; and if the girl selected liked the appearance of her suitor, a marriage took place at once and the young couple returned to their humble home, where they worked hard to maintain themselves and clear a little more land. In time the house was filled with a noisy, merry troop of children. The little people had scanty clothing and coarse fare —some Indian corn, a little wheat and a supply of vegetables. Now and then, game or fish and some eels helped to supply the table. A visitor to Canada in the seventeenth century said :—"The children run about half-naked and live on bread and eels, and yet they thrive and grow fat." The women at first were very badly off for clothing, but after a time they were taught how to knit and to spin, and to weave cloth. The hardy little country boys early learned to manage a canoe, handle a gun and roam the forest. Of book-learning they knew nothing, but the priest, who visited their homes now and then, saw that they were instructed in religion.

Home-making in Early Days.

The habitant had no taxes to pay. The rent of his farm was a mere trifle. A very little money and a few chickens were brought to the seigneur every autumn. If a grist was ground at the seigneur's mill a fourteenth of it was left in toll. Oftener it was ground in a hand-mill at home. Young Pierre or Jacques must be sent to the seigneury occasionally with one fish in each eleven that his father had caught. If the habitant was industrious and saving, he was soon able to live in a rude sort of comfort, and now and then one was able to buy the seigneury which its owner was forced to sell.

Simple Life of the Habitant.

The seigneurs were often poor. They did not know how to work, and many of them looked upon labor as a disgrace. Their wives had been delicately brought up, and the rough life of this new country was hard on them. Yet we find these gentle ladies facing its difficulties with merry hearts and brave spirits. They kept up their old customs and preserved in its purity the sweet speech of France.

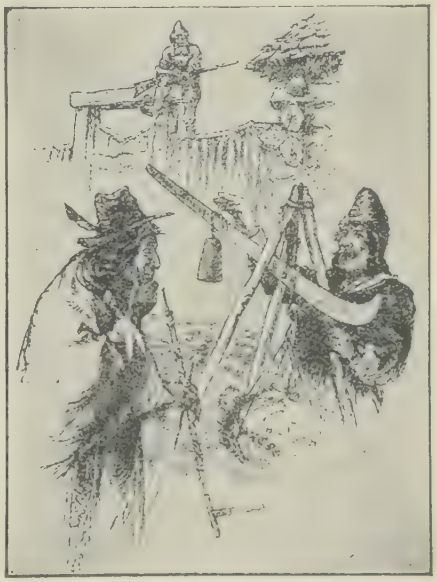
Habitant and seigneur were alike devoted to the Catholic Church. It will be remembered that the colony was first of all an Indian mission. Priests had always been encouraged to come out, and were supported after they came. They had their full share of the hardships and dangers of pioneer life, and had borne them like heroes. The nuns, too, took care of the sick and educated the girls of the colony. Smallpox and fevers were common, and battles were frequent. Too much cannot be said in praise of the self-denying labors of those who spent their lives in waiting on the sufferers from wounds or loathsome disease.

Devoted Catholics.

Sometimes seigneur and habitant alike grew discontented with the monotony of their life, even as in our own day thousands have given up the quiet and comfort of home to seek fortune and excitement in the northern gold fields. Two hundred years ago the young men of Canada packed their canoes and paddled to the western border of the Great Lakes, threaded the forest to the banks of the Ohio, or tramped on snow-shoes to the shores of Hudson Bay. The seigneur or his son often led the party (made up of youths of their own class, or perhaps gathered from the neighboring habitants) into the distant haunts of the Indians, to engage in the fur-trade. They mingled with the savages, joined their war parties and often lived with them for years at a time. They learned to be almost as good hunters and trappers as the Indians themselves, many adopting their dress, and taking wives from among them. This irregular traffic was forbidden, and the

A Roving Spirit.

coureurs-de-bois were looked upon as outlaws, and sometimes punished as such. But no edicts could prevent their seeking the wild, free life of the forest, with its opportunities for profit. Sometimes they built forts. Often they made valuable discoveries. Corrupt governors and intendants frequently employed them and shared their gains. The government that condemned them, made use of them to fight their battles against the English colonists; for, wild and lawless though they were, the *coureurs-de-bois* made brave and loyal soldiers.



TRADING WITH INDIANS.

Manufactures did not succeed in French Canada and commerce scarcely existed.

Commerce Stagnant. In spite of Talon's efforts the West Indian trade did not prosper. The farmers had no market for their produce, and grew little more than was needed for the support of their families. Even the fish that swarmed the Canadian waters were left undisturbed. Time and again the king paid large sums to encourage some industry that failed as soon as the bounty was withdrawn. The fact that there was never, during the French period, a Canadian currency, shows how little trade was carried on. The fur-trade alone flourished, but it was conducted entirely on a system of barter.

CHAPTER VIII.

FRONTENAC.

We have tried to understand how Canadians lived during the period of French Occupation. It now becomes necessary to trace the history of the province under the most remarkable of its governors.

Count Frontenac came to Canada in 1672. He was a nobleman of high rank and a splendid soldier. When he became Governor of New France he was fifty-two years old. He had lived much at the French court, and was fond of splendor and display. He had a strong will and a temper which would not brook opposition. He was poor, and hoped to find in Canada a way to mend his shattered fortunes. In spite of his faults, Frontenac was chivalric, and had many of the qualities of a good ruler. Haughty and imperious as he might be to his equals, he was kind and considerate to his inferiors. No white man has ever understood the Indians so well as he. He could govern the savages without irritating them. But his actions speak better for him than any words of another.

Governor Frontenac.

The history of this time must be studied with a map of North America in our hands. The French occupied Acadia—now called the Eastern Maritime Provinces—and Quebec. The Jesuits and *coureurs de bois* had explored the Great Lakes. A few years before, the Mississippi had been discovered and explored as far as the Arkansas River. La Salle was about to set out on his great but unfortunate expedition. His design was to complete the exploration of the noble river and to plant a great French colony in its valley. Along the Illinois and the Northern Mississippi, on the banks of Lake Superior, and away in the western prairie, dwelt savage tribes of Indians—those

hunters and trappers whose canoe-loads of rich furs supplied life to the colony. In almost every encampment the black robe of the Jesuit missionaries might be seen, and, wherever seen, was a token of French influence if not of French dominion.

District Inhabited.

Along the Atlantic Ocean to the south of Acadia stretched the New England colonies, with their rugged population of farmers, traders and fishermen. West of these was the Dutch colony of the New Netherlands, soon to become the English colony of New York, reaching to Lake Ontario and watered by the Hudson River. In the north-west of New York is a group of lakes, some of which preserve to this day the names of the members of the Iroquois confederacy, the most remarkable of the Indians of North America—Seneca, Cayuga, Onondaga, Oneida, and Mohawk. These were the terrible Five Nations, the scourge of Canada and of all the Indian tribes as far west as the Mississippi. They were not numerous. The whole population never exceeded, if it ever reached, the number of twelve thousand.

The Richelieu River afforded the Iroquois the easiest passage to Canada. It runs from Lake Champlain to the St. Lawrence, which it joins between Montreal and Three Rivers. About a hundred miles lower down the St. Lawrence is Quebec, secure on its rocky promontory, although not always able to protect the adjoining country from the attacks of the Indian foe.

Active and Enthusiastic.

Having carefully scanned the map, we will return to Frontenac. He found the colony prosperous. Talon was still there. The king had for years been sending out emigrants, and these had not been long enough in the colony to lose hope. To use a western expression, times were "booming." The energetic governor was full of enthusiasm. He called together a great meeting, consisting of the clergy, the seigneurs and the merchants and citizens. To this assemblage he made a speech in the king's name and administered the oath of allegiance. He might have

spared his pains, for the king of France hated anything that bore the least resemblance to a parliament, and Frontenac was warned not to repeat the experiment. The Jesuits, who had all along taken so important a part in the government of the colony, soon became jealous of this arbitrary governor who, like his master, wanted to rule alone. The new intendant, Duchesneau, made common cause with them, and together they irritated the irascible governor into unseemly fits of rage.

But the traffic in furs was at the bottom of most of the quarrels. Montreal was the centre of the western fur-trade. To this town the Indians came in the spring with the spoils of their winter's hunting. The French traders went there to meet them, and for a few weeks there was a busy time. Then the Indians sailed away with their goods, the furs were packed up and sent to France, and all was quiet again.

Montreal belonged to an order of priests called the Sulpicians and had a governor of its own, Perrot. This man, against the king's orders, had encouraged the *coureurs de bois* to sell him or his agents furs which they had bought from the Indians before they came to the fair.

Illicit Trade in Furs.

Frontenac interfered to punish some who took part in this illicit trade. Perrot resisted. He was taken prisoner by the governor, but afterward restored by the king. Frontenac built a fort on the present site of Kingston, for the double purpose of a support to La Salle in his discoveries and of a defence against the Iroquois. His enemies said the real purpose was to use it as a trading post. He was accused by Duchesneau of inducing the *coureurs de bois* to obtain furs for him. He in his turn accused the intendant of making money by the same unlawful practice. It is certain that these hardy, lawless traders were encouraged and that their numbers increased. At length, in 1681, the king, tired of their unceasing disputes and no doubt knowing that there was too much truth in their mutual accusations, recalled both governor and intendant.

The departure of the able old governor took place at a very unfortunate time. The Iroquois, who ever since De Tracy's expedition had given no trouble to Canada, were again preparing to take the war-path. They had, it would appear, determined to supplant the French in the western fur-trade, and make the Hudson the highway of that trade, which had till now found its outlet by the St. Lawrence. In this design they were supported by the English and Dutch traders of Albany. To accomplish their purpose the Iroquois must destroy those allies of the French, whom they could not frighten nor persuade to sell their furs to them. They had already begun by destroying the Illinois, who lived in what is now the state of Illinois. An accident caused the Ottawas, another of the allies of the French, to incur the anger of the Iroquois. The western tribes were alarmed. Frontenac had tried to quiet his friends and appease the Iroquois and was, as he thought, successful. But the war-cloud had not passed away.

Iroquois again Warlike.

Governor La Barre arrived in 1682. He was an old West Indian officer who had done good service in his time, but he did not understand the Indians of Canada, and he had neither the decision nor the tact necessary to deal with them. He was by turns boastful and timid. Worse than all, he engaged in the fur-trade and allowed his interests as a trader to interfere with his duty to the king and to the colony.

Arrival of La Barre.

When the Iroquois were about to fall once again on the tribes of the lakes, La Barre sent to France for soldiers and prepared to invade their country. Dongan, the Governor of New York (which was then owned by the English), was a brave and loyal servant of the king. He tried to get the Iroquois to acknowledge the supremacy of Great Britain, but the savages declared that the Great Spirit had given their country to them, and that they would yield it neither to

Onontio, governor of Canada, nor to Corlaer, governor of New York. La Barre had meanwhile (in 1684) assembled his forces near Fort Frontenac and sent to summon a council of the chiefs of the Iroquois. The ground was wet and provisions were scarce. The soldiers fell ill, and by the time the Indians arrived,



La Barre had to send the sick men homeward to hide their condition from the envoys. The ruse was not successful, for a clever old Indian, who had received the nickname of Big Mouth, told La Barre that the Indians knew all about the intended invasion and the sickness of the soldiers. As it suited the purposes of the Iroquois at the time, they made peace, but with the

disgraceful condition that they would make war on the Indian allies of the French if they saw fit; and La Barre felt himself compelled, under the circumstances, to conclude the treaty.

A Great War-Party.

A great war-party of the Western Indians, who had been induced by the French officers, Jesuits and *coureurs-de-bois* to join in the expected invasion, arrived after the shameful peace had been made. They went back disappointed and angry. They lost faith in the French, who had failed to protect them and punish their enemies, and who could not secure them from further attack.

The new governor, Denonville, who came in 1698, was a brave and honest gentleman. He took no part in the fur-trade but was content to serve the king for the salary paid him. He was, too, a man of religious zeal; and for once, governor, intendant, and bishop lived in peace. Denonville saw that he had not only to fight the hostile Iroquois, and win back the allies whom La Barre had disappointed, but, what was still more serious, to contend with the English, who claimed a right to trade on the lakes, who owned the Hudson Bay territory, and who coveted the whole country south of the Great Lakes. The French, on the other hand, had explored the Ohio and Mississippi and built a fort at the mouth of the latter. They had an important station at Michillimackinac. In short, the French had not only been the first to take possession of the valley of the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes, but they had discovered, explored, and occupied to some extent the vast territory from the Gulf of Mexico to the prairies of the North-West. Between these rival claimants there could be no peace till one or the other had triumphed. Dongan sent parties of traders up the lakes and endeavored to seduce the French allies. Denonville had agents among the Iroquois who tried to win them over to the French. Meanwhile they wrote one another letters, at first polite but afterwards sharp enough.

Rivals in Trade.

At length Denonville was ready to fight. Just before he set out for the Seneca country, the governor committed an act of unpardonable folly and treachery. On the north shore of Lake Ontario there were two Iroquois villages. The Montreal priests had a mission there and the Indians had always been friendly. The Iroquois were invited to a feast at Fort Frontenac and then the men were captured and tied to stakes, while their women and children, who according to the custom of these people in time of peace had accompanied the warriors, looked on broken-hearted. These prisoners were afterwards sent to work in the galleys in France.

After a great deal of persuasion and many acts of cruelty on the part of both Indians and French, the tribes of the west were induced to join the war-party, and the whole army marched from Lake Ontario into the Seneca country. They defeated the Indians in a sharp battle, destroyed their crops, killed their dogs, and burned or carried off their stores, but they let the greater number of the warriors escape to their allies. Here they stayed till the French left the country, when they returned to rebuild their town and nurse their wrath against the day of vengeance. It soon came. For two years there was peace without security, then the Indians, supplied with arms and ammunition by the English, and goaded into fury by the intrigues of a Huron chief called the Rat, descended upon Canada.

One dark night in 1689, fifteen hundred savages landed at Lachine near Montreal and massacred the inhabitants. Thence-

Massacre at Lachine.

forward there was no safety excepting behind the walls of the forts. The cruelties committed by these fiends in human shape were too terrible for description. A panic seized the colony, and even the soldiers seem to have shared it. Denonville was recalled; and Frontenac, at the age of seventy, returned to retrieve, if possible, the blunders of La Barre and Denonville.

Frontenac brought back with him the thirteen survivors of the Iroquois captured by Denonville. With his usual address, he won the friendship of one of their number, Ourehaoné, a chief who was a great favorite among all the Iroquois tribes. He persuaded him to despatch three of his fellow-captives with a message to his countrymen bidding them send for him and make friends with Frontenac. But the Iroquois, who were about to conclude an alliance with the English and the western tribes, sent back word that they were glad to hear Ourehaoné had come back, that they had made peace with the western tribes, but that they would not bury the hatchet till the captive warriors were returned. They did not say they had made an alliance with the English.

Indians Make Conditions.

Frontenac felt that the western alliance must be broken at all costs; so Perrot, a bold and clever officer, was sent to Michillimackinac on the difficult and dangerous errand of preventing the conclusion of the treaty. He succeeded at least in delaying peace.

Frontenac now resolved to punish the English for the part which the government of New York had taken in the late war. He knew that if he could defeat them, the Iroquois would be overawed, and the western tribes would feel that he was strong enough to protect them. England and France were at war, so he was free to act according to his inclinations. Already the vigorous old man had broken the spell of terror and apathy which had fallen on Canada during his absence, and Indians and Canadians alike were ready to take the war-path at his command.

In 1690 he formed three war-parties of *coureurs-de bois* and mission Indians to fall upon the English border settlements. One was sent to New York, a second to New Hampshire, and a third to Maine. Too well they accomplished their murderous purpose. At Schenectady (near Albany), at Salmon Falls, N.H.,

and at Fort Loyal on Casco Bay, the English settlers—men, women, and children—were barbarously murdered or taken prisoner.

These victories had the effect Frontenac desired. The capture of Schenectady, unimportant though it was, proved that the hand of a master was again at the helm.

Indians Rally Round Frontenac.

The western Indians who, in May of 1690, were with great difficulty kept from forming an alliance with the English and Iroquois, in August came down in hundreds to Montreal with the furs they had been three years in gathering. With them came the French fur-traders. There was great rejoicing in that city. A council was held, and the various tribes of savages swore to support Frontenac in the war with the English and Iroquois. The old governor attended the council, led the war-dance and shared the war-feast.

Though the success of Frontenac's war-parties gave new courage and confidence to Canada, it also aroused anger and resentment in the English colonies. There was war between England and France, and New England and New York determined to punish the Canadians who had struck the first blow. A land force was sent from Albany, under Winthrop, to attack Montreal; while Sir William Phips, who had just captured Port Royal, was sent from Boston to seize Quebec.

The New York expedition was badly managed from the first, and on their way the soldiers were attacked by smallpox. The Indians went home in a panic.

Schuyler's Onslaught.

Captain John Schuyler took a small band of English colonials and Indians, and fell upon the undefended settlement of La Prairie, on the Richelieu, slaughtering the inhabitants, burning their houses and destroying their crops and cattle. The invaders managed to escape before the French soldiers, gathered at Montreal, could overtake them. Frontenac stayed there some weeks, fearing a formidable attack.

On the 10th of October Frontenac received a message saying that a large fleet had left Boston to take Quebec; so, calling in all the troops he went to its defence. During the previous winter, while the war-parties were attacking the English frontier, Frontenac had sent men to the woods to cut down lumber. All the summer a force had been engaged in fortifying the city on the land side, and when Phips came he found it prepared for a siege. In reply to Phips' long and formal message to surrender, the haughty old governor sent word that his only answer would be by the mouth of his guns.



FRONTENAC.

Phips then landed a force below Quebec to attack the rear palisades, while the fleet set about to bombard the town from the river; but their ammunition was exhausted before the land force could co-operate, so the plan failed utterly. It was late in the season, and Phips, angry and humiliated, was forced to sail away. As he went down the river he missed in the fog several French ships carrying supplies to Quebec. If he had known how much the food was needed he would have waited till hunger forced the French to open their gates.

The English were gone, but the Iroquois still continued their inroads into Canada. Above Three Rivers seed had to be sown and crops reaped under the protection of a guard of soldiers. Many brave stories are told of the encounters between the Canadians and the Iroquois. But none are more worthy of remembrance than the exploit of a maiden of fourteen—Madeline, the daughter of the seigneur of Verchères. The little lady rescued a family

Bravery of Madeline.

who were fleeing to the fort for refuge, though the place was beset by Indians. With two soldiers, her two little brothers and an old man of eighty, she held the fort in which were a number of women and children, till it was relieved, a week later, by an officer with a detachment of forty soldiers.

The Mohawk Indians were the most fierce and persistent in their attacks upon the colony. To punish them, a war party consisting of mission Indians, soldiers and Canadians set out in the winter of 1693 by way of the Richelieu and Lake Champlain. They destroyed three of the Mohawk towns and took a large number of prisoners. On their way home they were attacked by Schuyler with a party of colonials and Indians. In the fight which followed neither party could claim a victory. On their return journey the French suffered terribly, as the ice of the lakes and river had melted, and they had to march overland.

Again the Indians of the west and the *coureurs de bois* came down the St. Lawrence, and Frontenac gained, as he deserved, the gratitude of the colony. But the Iroquois were soon at their old work of trying to break the alliance between the French and the western tribes. Frontenac determined upon making a great effort to conquer them. In the summer of 1696 this indefatigable old man led in person a great war party of regulars, militia and Indians into the Onondaga country. The wily savages pursued their old tactics, abandoning towns and farms, and trusting to their allies for food for the winter. But the terror of French arms had its effect, and the Five Nations were ready at last to make peace.

The governor was not to see it concluded. His stormy career was ended, and in the late autumn of 1698 the brave old heart was at rest forever.



CHAPTER IX.

EXTENDING THE COLONY.

While Talon was endeavoring to establish a prosperous colony on the banks of the St. Lawrence, priests and traders were urging their canoes farther and farther westward. Already, missions and trading-stations were established by the rapids of Ste. Marie, on the Straits of Mackinac, and along the shores of Lake Michigan. To these came tribes of Indians from the south and west to trade or to listen to the teaching of the Jesuits.

In 1671 Talon sent an expedition to Ste. Marie to take possession of this western region in the name of the king of France. The cross was raised by soldiers and priests with solemn ceremonies in the presence of two thousand Indians.

Among those who listened to the proclamation was an enterprising young merchant, Louis Joliet, who had heard from some of the Indians of a great river called the Father of Waters, and who was determined to discover it; while, at a mission near Ste. Marie, a brave and holy priest named Marquette was laboring with gentle but unavailing zeal and patience to teach the Christian faith to a few Huron refugees. He was thirty-four years old, and though he had been in Canada only five years had mastered many Indian languages. He longed to carry the faith to the heathen who lived in the valley of this yet undiscovered river.

"Father of Waters."

Marquette and Joliet embarked together on May 17th, 1673, taking with them five men in a birch-bark canoe. Coasting round Lake Michigan as far as Green Bay, they entered the Fox River, and from it made their way to the Wisconsin. Through the long June days they paddled down the beautiful river, till on the seventeenth, to the great joy of the enthusiastic Marquette, they found themselves floating south on the current of the Mississippi. They saw herds of buffalo feeding on the great prairies that stretched westward, and, noticing well beaten paths leading to the river, were bold enough to leave their boats and travel to an Indian town which belonged, they found, to the Illinois. The explorers, though kindly received, were warned that if they should pursue their course great dangers would be met; but, bidding their hosts farewell, they continued on their way. Soon a roaring torrent added its waters to the peaceful current: they were passing the mouth of the Missouri. A few more days of paddling beneath the warm sun and they saw to the east the gentle course of the Ohio, the loveliest of eastern rivers. Farther to the south the lazy Mississippi wound among swamp and cane-brake. The weather had become intolerably hot when they reached the mouth of the Arkansas.

Explore Great Rivers.

They were now among unfriendly Indians. They knew the Mississippi must flow into the Gulf of Mexico instead of into the Gulf of California, as had been supposed; and as nothing was to be gained by going on, they set out on their homeward journey. The hot days, the damp nights, and the incessant toil were too much for Marquette, and he fell ill. The explorers returned by the Illinois, and reached Green Bay by the end of September. They had paddled two thousand five hundred miles. Joliet returned to Canada. Marquette went to preach Christianity to the Illinois, but had scarcely begun his mission when he died, leaving behind him a record of humble, unselfish, but heroic piety.

Dreams of a Colony.

While Marquette was exploring the Mississippi in the hope of bringing the tribes inhabiting its wide valley into the fold of the church, a young Frenchman named La Salle was dreaming of founding a colony in the same vast region. He had come to Canada in 1666, and had purchased, improved, and settled the seigneury of Lachine, near Montreal. (See page 56.) Leaving the rude civilization of the colony, he entered the great forests which stretched south and west of the St. Lawrence, and discovered the Ohio River.

In 1673 he returned to Canada, and received from Count Frontenac a grant of a fort and seigneury at the mouth of the Cataraqui, built for the double purpose of preventing the Iroquois from entering the Great Lakes and of carrying on the fur-trade with the western tribes. La Salle changed the name from Cataraqui to Fort Frontenac. In 1677 he went to France and obtained permission to explore the Mississippi, build forts on its banks, and occupy and rule it for the king of France. Returning to Canada, he engaged men and bought stores for his great expedition. Among his associates were two men of note, his faithful friend, Henri Tonti (an Italian), and Louis Hennepin, an able but vain and boastful priest. La Salle's first step was to

erect a fort near Niagara Falls and to build a ship which he called the Griffin. This was the first vessel to sail on the great lakes. He loaded the Griffin with stores and supplies for the Indian trade,

Loss of the Griffin.

and in 1679 set sail on his voyage of exploration. When he reached Green Bay he met some of his men who had been trading with the Indians. They had a great store of furs. With these he reloaded the Griffin, and sent her back for fresh supplies, but she was never heard of again. Whether robbed and sunk by treacherous sailors or lost in a storm on the lakes was never ascertained.

La Salle soon after built Fort Crèvecœur, and commenced a new vessel near the site of the present city of Peoria, on the Illinois River. Near him was a large encampment of Illinois Indians. When he was assured of the loss of the Griffin, this dauntless man set out on foot in the winter of 1680 to obtain supplies from Fort Frontenac. Through the hardships of this journey we cannot follow him, and can only pause to picture his consternation when at length he returned to Fort Crèvecœur, and found that the Iroquois had been there before him, leaving nothing but death and desolation. Of the fate of Tonti, La Salle could find no trace, but he spent no time in lamentation.

Calls a Council.

Retracing his steps to the Miami, he gathered a council of the Indian tribes who had escaped the clutches of the Iroquois, and the bands of refugees who had fled from the English settlements during King Philip's war. With these tribes, driven together by a common dread of the terrible Iroquois, he made a treaty promising them the protection of the French monarch. This done, he again went to Canada. On his way he met Tonti. What stories of dangers escaped and trials endured these faithful friends must have had to tell each other!

At last in the autumn of 1681 he set out for the Mississippi, and, reaching its mouth on the 9th of April 1682, took possession of the whole region in the name of Louis, king of France,

after whom it was called Louisiana. On his way north he built Fort St. Louis, on the Illinois, and in its shelter, the Indian tribes, to the number of twenty thousand, settled down and constructed their lodges. For once we may fancy La Salle's heart was filled with hope, and he hurried to Canada to tell his old friend Frontenac of his success. But this governor had been recalled to France, and La Barre and his selfish crew were bent on robbing La Salle of his goods and his forts.



LA SALLE.

La Salle hastened to France and obtained an order for the restoration of his property. The king gave him a fresh commission to build a fort at the mouth of the Mississippi and to lead a force of Indians and Frenchmen against the Spaniards in Mexico. Four vessels, a hundred soldiers, thirty volunteers, with laborers, mechanics, and a few women formed the expedition. It was an ill fated one. The commander of the ships and La Salle disagreed. After many misfortunes they reached the Gulf of Mexico, but missed the mouth of the Mississippi, and landed at Matagorda Bay on the coast of Texas. Here La Salle built a rude fort to shelter his people, while he set out by land to reach the Mississippi. Again and again he was forced to turn back. At last he was basely murdered by a party of his own men, who found his rule

too strict. La Salle was forty-three years old when he fell on the Texan prairie. Few greater men than he, have ever lived. He had the ability to form vast plans and the energy and perseverance to carry them out. He set his own hand to the hardest tasks, and was the foremost to face danger. He shared every privation and denied himself every indulgence. Even in the wilds of the west he lived the life of a Christian gentleman, and so far as he was able compelled his followers to behave to one another at least as civilized men, not as outlaws. The Indians feared and respected him always, and at times served him with wonderful devotion, though he was a strict and often a stern master. His plans occupied all his thoughts, and he brooded over them in silence, seldom asking for help or sympathy. His European companions, excepting Tonti and a few others, could not appreciate the greatness of a man who was always attempting great things, who often failed, but who never turned back.

Greatness of La Salle.

After the murder of La Salle, his brother and other friends of the explorer, found their way back to Canada and thence to France. Tonti lived to take part in the war against the Iroquois. The wretched little colony in Texas fell a prey to disease and to their Indian foes; and when the Spaniards sought them out to destroy them, it was found that the fort was already desolate. The only lasting fruits of La Salle's labors were a great discovery and the record of a noble life.

Fruitless Labors.

The story of the first exploration of the Mississippi would not be complete without an allusion to the work of Father Louis Hennepin, who, in 1680, explored the main stream from the mouth of the Illinois to the site of the present city of St. Paul, near its source.



CHAPTER X.

ACADIA UNDER THE ENGLISH.

By the terms of the treaty of Utrecht the Acadians were allowed "to remove themselves within a year to any other place with all their movable effects." Those who remained were to become British subjects and enjoy the free exercise of their religion. Most of them refused to leave their farms at Mines, Chignecto, and Grand Pré, and to make new homes in Cape Breton, Ile St. Jean, or Canada. They loved the fruitful uplands and the fragrant meadows which they and their fathers had redeemed from the sea.

The Loyal Acadians.

But if they resolved to remain in Acadia, they were equally determined not to transfer their allegiance to the foreign power

that had conquered their country. Not one, but seventeen years had elapsed after the treaty had been ratified, before Governor Philipps induced them to take an oath of allegiance to George II., and then it was with the understanding that they would never be required to take up arms against the French king.

In the interval there had been an Indian war against the English, who believed that the savages were encouraged and helped by the Acadians. Claims were made by the French to the land watered by the St. John and to all the territory north of the Bay of Fundy. This would cut the English off from all Acadia, except the strip between the Cobequid mountains and the Bay of Fundy, and the Atlantic Ocean.

Several French families settled at that time along the St. John, and although, in 1736, forced to acknowledge the English supremacy, they were afterwards left to themselves, and the territory became a place of refuge for all who were discontented with English rule or had designs against the British Government.

We must not forget that the Acadians had good grounds for believing that it would not be long before France would regain possession of what they looked upon as their land. On the eastern coast of Cape Breton a great fortress called Louisbourg was raised. The French still had possession of the valuable fisheries of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and the governor of Canada was continually sending agents among them, exhorting them to remain loyal to France, and promising that very soon an army would come and recapture Acadia. The English, on their part, were making few new settlements, and had no forces which could oppose a combined attack from Canada and Old France. Thus, in spite of what were, after all, only occasional disturbances, the Acadians continued to grow and prosper till the outbreak of the War of the Austrian Succession in 1745. Louisbourg and the fishing stations afforded them a good market for their surplus produce, and they had no taxes to pay.

A Great Fortress.

The English, after more than thirty years of occupation, had only two forts in Acadia—Annapolis (the old Port Royal) and Canseau. A force was sent from Louisbourg to capture Acadia; and Belleisle, a grandson of La Tour, determining to win glory and regain his seigneurial rights at the same time, led a band of Indians against Annapolis. Canseau fell without resistance.

Attack on English Forts.

Paul Mascarene, the governor of Nova Scotia—a brave and determined man—repulsed Belleisle and his band of savages at Annapolis, though the fortifications were in a ruinous condition. He was equally successful in driving off the land force which came from Louisbourg; and later, when the men-of-war which were to have supported it, arrived, they too, were driven back by Mascarene, whose garrison had, meanwhile, been reinforced from Boston. Brave and resourceful as Mascarene was, he could not have succeeded but for the refusal of the Acadians to aid their own countrymen. They wrote to the French commander: "We live under a mild and tranquil government, and have all good reason to be faithful to it."

The heroic deed of this war was the capture of Louisbourg, and the glory of it was won by a body of New England volunteers. The New Englanders hated Louisbourg, not only because it gave shelter to the privateers that preyed upon their trading-vessels in time of war and the savages who descended upon their frontiers, but because it was a constant sign and reminder of French power in North America. When Shirley, governor of Massachusetts, called for volunteers the call was responded to with unusual promptness, and troops to the number of four or five thousand were placed under the command of General Pepperell, a merchant, who had, like others of his class, learned to fight in the school of the Indian wars.

Capture of Louisbourg.

The commander of the English squadron, Commodore Warren,

at first refused to join what seemed a hare-brained expedition; but when, several weeks later, in April of 1745, Pepperell had reached Canseau, and was rebuilding the fort destroyed by the French, he was agreeably surprised to see Warren's four ships entering the harbor.

Warren set sail for Louisbourg, where he was joined by six more ships from England, which enabled him to seize the fort at St. Peters and prevent French ships from taking supplies to the garrison. When Pepperell's transports arrived, the French were completely taken by surprise, and he was able to effect a landing. After a siege of forty-nine days the French commander capitulated. The garrison and all the inhabitants were sent back to France, and the English flag floated from the battlements of Louisbourg. A more daring and a more successful feat of arms has rarely been accomplished than that achieved by merchant Pepperell and his force of farmers and mechanics. That the victory proved fruitless must have been a great disappointment to the New Englanders, for Louisbourg was restored to France by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748.

English Flag Floats.

In this war the French lost two fine fleets. One sent out against Acadia was shattered by storms, and only a few weather-beaten ships reached its coasts. The other was destroyed by Commodore Anson off Cape Finisterre, on the north-west coast of Spain.

A French force occupied the peninsula of Chignecto during the winter of 1747. The commander learned that a body of five hundred soldiers sent by Governor Shirley to Mascarene's assistance were quartered on the Acadians at Minas. He determined to surprise this army, and sent a force around the Bay of Fundy to seize them. A tedious march of eighteen days brought the French to the Gaspereau. They were fortunate enough to arrive in a furious snow-storm. While the English, not dreaming of danger, slept, their houses were surrounded,

they themselves overpowered, and a large number killed in spite of a brave resistance.

The success of this enterprise was unfortunate for the English government. The Acadians saw the British officers surprised and defeated at their own doors. It was most natural that the excitable Frenchmen should exaggerate the importance of the victory and form an unjust estimate of the courage and capacity of the defeated English soldiers.



HARBOR OF LOUISBOURG *(From old print.)*

At the close of the war no expense nor labor was spared on the part of France to restore and strengthen Louisbourg. The claim to the western part of Acadia was renewed and emissaries sent into the province to seduce the inhabitants from their wavering and half-hearted allegiance to England. One of these, a priest named Le Loutre, used his sacred office to stir up the strife between his people and the English government.

Till now there had been no important English settlement in Nova Scotia, but in 1749 Halifax was founded on Chebuctou harbor. It was at once settled by two thousand five hundred persons, chiefly discharged officers and sailors. Thither the seat of government was removed, and at the first meeting of the Council the Acadians were called upon to take the long-delayed

Halifax Founded.

oath of allegiance, but this they refused to do unless exempted from bearing arms in case of another French war. They were then told that unless they would take an unqualified oath by a certain day all their goods and rights in the province would be forfeited.

Perhaps as a step towards enforcing the order, the English built a block-house at Mines. This displeased the French; and the Indians who had only just concluded a treaty of friendship with the English, were soon again on the war-path. They committed a number of outrages in different parts of the province, in some instances openly assisted by the Acadians, and in others receiving from them secret aid and encouragement. A block-house called Fort Edward was erected in 1750 between Pisiguid and Ste. Croix, and in the same year Major Lawrence was sent to build another at Chignecto, near the disputed boundary and the centre of Acadian disaffection. There were French troops on this peninsula stationed on the northern bank of the little River Missaguash, which the French claimed as the boundary of Acadia. To the south, on the rich marshes, lay the prosperous settlement of Beaubassin, with about a thousand inhabitants.

Flight of Acadians. No sooner had word arrived that the troops were coming, than the Acadians of this place deserted their farms, burned their houses, and fled across the river to the French camp. This was the first step in the exile of the Acadians and it was taken by the advice of their priest, Le Loutre. Many of these people went to Ile St. Jean and other wilderness places, where they suffered great hardships.

In September, 1750, Lawrence built a fort south of the Missaguash, to which he gave his own name, and in the same year La Corne began to build the fine French fort called Beauséjour a few miles to the north of the same river. The French had thus a chain of forts extending across Acadia from Baie Verte to the mouth of the St. John. It was impossible that peace

should long continue, with armed men facing each other in this way, and in 1755 Governor Lawrence wrote to Governor Shirley of Massachusetts asking his help to drive the French from the north side of the Bay of Fundy.

French Forts Taken.

A force was accordingly sent against Beauséjour under command of Moncton, Winslow, and Scott. After a short resistance the fort was taken. The Acadians who had been forced to take up arms were pardoned. The garrison was sent by sea to Louisbourg, and promised not to fight against the English for six months. The other French posts in Acadia were also taken. This was the only one, of four English expeditions sent in 1755 against the French forts in North America, that had accomplished its purpose. Everywhere else the French were victorious.

The Seven Years' War was about to commence, and with it a life and death struggle between France and England for the possession of the North American continent. We have seen in our own day in South Africa how a war can be prolonged by the sympathy and secret assistance of the disaffected population of a colony on the border of an enemy's state. The Acadians were likewise in a position to seriously embarrass the English, and there had been in the previous years abundant evidence that they were ready to take full advantage of this position, to aid by every means in their power the enemies of England and to thwart and injure her defenders.

Lawrence, the governor of Nova Scotia, and the British military authorities determined that the French inhabitants of the colony must at length be compelled either to submit unconditionally or be banished with their families. The deputies of the principal French settlements were called to Halifax, and every argument was used to induce the men of Acadia to take the oath of allegiance; but still one and all insisted that they could not and would not swear to obey the British sovereign,

except with the condition previously made. This condition the English would not grant, having learned too well the character of Acadian neutrality. Then took place that lamentable event — the banishment of the Acadians. Troops were sent into the different districts. The men were imprisoned, and the women and children brought with their household goods to the seashore, where they were put on board transports and sent to different parts of the British colonies, from Boston to the West Indies. About three thousand were thus transported. The remainder of the population fled either to Canada, Ile St. Jean (Prince Edward Island), or Ile Royale (Cape Breton). Some remained with the French army at Chignecto, and continued till the close of the war to annoy the English.

Exiled Acadians.

Eight years later, when peace was restored and Canada became an English possession, by far the greater number of the banished Acadians returned to their old homes, and their descendants to-day form a large, loyal, law-abiding, and industrious part of the population of the Maritime Provinces. Still, on some quiet road, a grande dame, or a matron, may be met wearing the close-fitting cap, the kirtle of homespun, and the kerchief of the olden days. Still the novelist may obtain material for his romance from the legends of the war told by some white-haired patriarch to the children, who, with bright dark eyes and eager gestures, sit listening around the open door on a summer holiday. Still in a remote district the credulous country lads may steal out in the hush of the summer night, with lantern and divining rod, to search for buried treasure, left, so the story runs, by some rich Frenchman in his hurried flight. The younger Acadians wear no distinctive dress, though the accents of their sweet mother-tongue may yet linger among them, and their manners bear traces of a vivacity foreign to their neighbors of Anglo-Saxon descent; but on the farm, at the fishing station, in the

Loyal Descendants.

workshop, in the school, and in professional life, their influence is felt, and they are doing good service in building up the Canadian nation.

Longfellow's Evangeline.

Longfellow has painted for us a picture of the expulsion of the Acadians that will live forever in our imagination. But while we admire the beauty and feel the pathos of Evangeline, we should not forget that rulers must deal, not with individuals but with masses of people. War is cruel, and it is a stern rule of nature that wickedness and folly bring suffering not only upon the guilty but upon the innocent also.

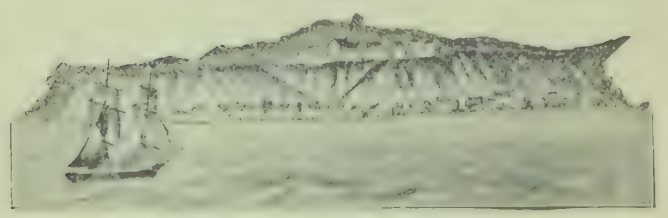


(From old print.)

MEADOWS OF GRAND PRE.

CHAPTER XI.

THE CHAIN OF FORTS.

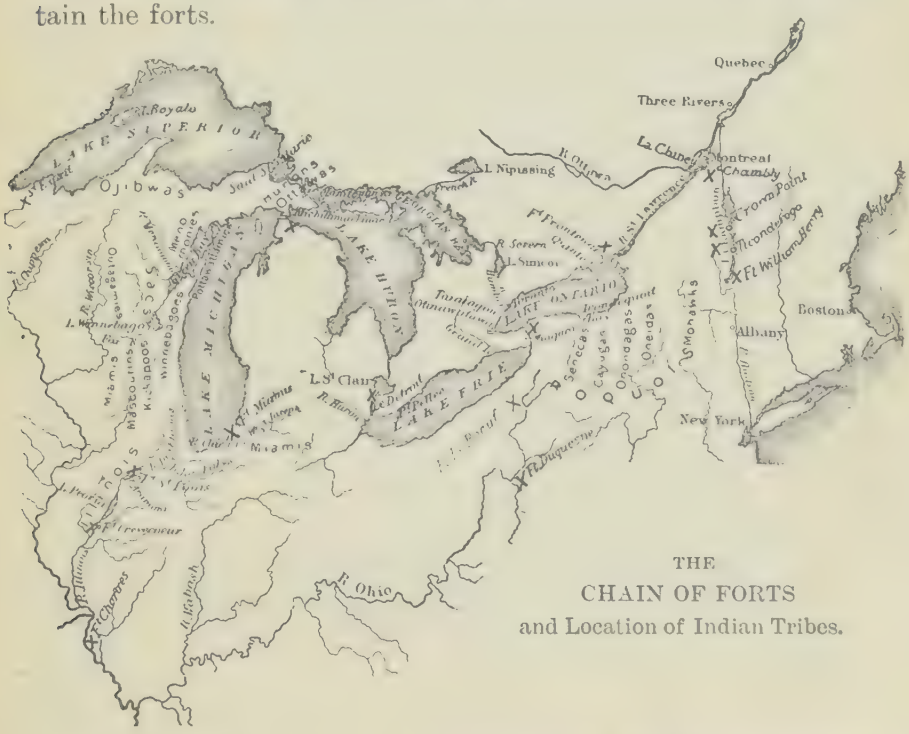


FORT MICHILLIMACKINAC.

The French now claimed not only the basin of the St. Lawrence but the whole of North America, from the Gulf of Mexico to the Arctic Ocean, and from the Alleghanies to the Rocky Mountains. The region held by an English fur trading company around Hudson Bay and a narrow strip along the shore of the Atlantic Ocean was all they conceded to Great Britain. But how was France to hold the territory gained for her by her noble band of explorers? Champlain had shown the way when in 1608 he planted his little town on the rocky precipice of Quebec. Whoever held that citadel owned the St. Lawrence. Frontenac had built a fortress near the entrance of Lake Ontario. Detroit—founded in 1694 by La Motte Cadillac in spite of the opposition of Jesuits, Montreal merchants, and the Iroquois—guarded the Upper Lakes, and Michillimackinac closed the entrance to Lake Michigan. La Salle had built a fort on the Illinois. In 1720 the chain of forts was completed when Fort Niagara was erected near La Salle's old post, in spite of the English and the Iroquois. Every entrance to the Mississippi

from the north was guarded by hardy Canadian soldiers. Farther down the river, in the Illinois country, Fort Chartres threatened the passing boat with destruction.

In the east, Fort Chambly protected Montreal from the Iroquois who might try to reach it by the way of Lake Champlain and the Richelieu. In 1731 the French fortified themselves against their more formidable civilized enemy by building Crown Point at the outlet of Lake Champlain, and before the Seven Years' War began, the cannon of Ticonderoga guarded the passage from Lake George. Almost all these places served the double purpose of defence against the enemy and of fur-trading stations, and in many cases the profits of the fur were supposed to maintain the forts.



THE
CHAIN OF FORTS
and Location of Indian Tribes.

The building of forts in the Ohio valley and on the frontier of Acadia forms part of the story of that great war which ended by giving Canada to England.

CHAPTER XII.

THE SEARCH FOR THE PACIFIC.

All the early explorers of Canada had hoped to find the Pacific Ocean. Champlain had sought it by way of the St. Lawrence and the Ottawa. Marquette had hoped to reach it when he embarked on the Mississippi. Still, in the eighteenth century, the western ocean was the goal longed for by the adventurous Canadian voyageur. In that search the Arkansas and the Missouri as well as many a southern stream had been followed toward their sources. With Louisiana as a base, almost the whole south-western part of the great central plain had been explored till on the one hand the travellers had reached the Spanish settlements in the south and on the other, followed the windings of the Platte river into the treeless plains of Colorado.

But the most interesting discoveries, to us at least, are those of the Vérendryes. Verendrye the elder, was a Canadian born in 1685. In his youth he went to Europe, served in the war of the Spanish succession, and was wounded at Malplaquet. On his return to Canada he resumed his old life of a forest fur trader, and in 1728 he had command of a post on Lake Nepigon.

The Vérendryes.

From the Indians with whom he traded he heard many stories of a river that flowed into the western sea. None were credible, but the desire for exploration awoke within him, and he asked the king to furnish him with means to discover the Pacific Ocean. The king would give him no money but granted him a monopoly of the fur trade west of Lake Superior. As in the case of La Salle, this aroused the jealousy of all the merchants in Canada.

But the governor, Beauharnois, was his steady friend and defended him against the slander of his enemies. We can only very briefly follow the career of this enterprising explorer and his gallant sons.

In June 1731 Vérendrye, his three sons, his nephew, a Jesuit priest, and a party of Canadians set out from Montreal for the far west. They reached Lake Superior and started across the barren rocky region that separates the waters flowing into Lake Superior from those that empty into Lake Winnipeg. The men grew mutinous, and Vérendrye himself could not proceed that year beyond the Kaministikwia. His nephew was able to build a fort—St. Pierre on Rainy Lake. The next year this nephew died, and the eldest son of Vérendrye, a priest, and a party of twenty who had set out with him for Michillimackinac, were found on an island in the Lake of the Woods murdered by the Indians. In spite of this and numberless difficulties and discouragements,

Explorers' Progress Westerly.

Vérendrye succeeded in exploring a great part of what is now the Province of Manitoba. On Rainy Lake, the Lake of the Woods, on the Assiniboine, at the mouth of the River Winnipeg, on the eastern side of Lake Winnipeg, and on Lake Manitoba he built fortified posts. Fort Rouge stood on the site of the city of Winnipeg, and still later a fort was built on the Saskatchewan. But although he spared no pains, he could find no trace of a road to the Pacific.

At length in 1738 he heard that the Mandans, a tribe of Indians on the Missouri, could guide him to the western sea. He set out for the Mandan country, and in due time reached their villages, but unfortunately he was robbed of the presents without which no dealings with the Indians could be carried on. His interpreter, too, deserted him and he was obliged to return. He left behind him two of his men to learn the Mandan language. On his way home he grew very ill, and was compelled to leave future explorations to his sons.

In 1742 the brothers Vérendrye, with two Canadians, reached the Mandans. These Indians told them that they did not know the way to the sea, but that a western tribe called the Horse Indians could direct them to it. They furnished the Canadians with two guides. They travelled for twenty days, and reached, not the tribe for whom they had been searching, but another called by the travellers *Les Beaux Hommes*. These Indians were friendly, and sent some of their young men to guide the Canadian party to the Horse Indians. When at length that tribe was reached it was found that they knew nothing of the Pacific, but they told of another tribe, the Bow Indians, who dwelt near the mountains, and they, it was said, would know something about the great water. When the explorers reached at last the encampment of the Bow Indians they found that the whole tribe had gathered together for a war expedition against the Snake Indians. They asked the Canadians to accompany them, and the younger Vérendrye, who was called the Chevalier, consented. He was rewarded, for on New Year's Day 1743, he beheld the Big Horn Range of the Rocky Mountains. He thought that if he could only climb one of the distant snow-clad peaks he might see at its feet the great Pacific. More than half a century, however, was to pass before the first white man should make his toilsome way over the eight hundred miles that intervene between the Rocky Mountains and the ocean. The young men now returned with the news of their discovery.

Jack-o'-Lantern.

First Glimpse of Rockies.

Their friend Beauharnois was soon after recalled, but his successor Galissonnière, perhaps the ablest of Canadian governors, continued to defend the explorers against the envy and detraction of rival fur traders. This governor was able to estimate at their true value the toils, the anxieties, and the dangers of the life led by men who, at their own cost, undertook the exploration of such vast regions; and he obtained for Vérendrye the elder,

the much-coveted decoration of the Order of the Cross of St. Louis. But this great explorer did not long enjoy the honor, for he died in 1746.

His sons pressed on. The Chevalier reached the forks of the Saskatchewan, and was about to start on a journey to the mountains, but bad news came. A new governor, Jonquière, and an unscrupulous intendant, François Bigot, had arrived in Canada. They were both bent on making their fortunes in the colony. The Vérendryes had given years of labor and spent large sums of money in building forts and finding routes through the north-western prairies. They had established a very lucrative fur-trade, but now the fruit of their labors was taken from them. The commission to find the Pacific was given to one St. Pierre, who was totally unfitted for the task. The Vérendryes were robbed of their forts and goods, and the work for which they had prepared themselves from boyhood was given to others. Little advantage was reaped by those who had entered into this dishonest scheme. The Indians proved hostile, and St. Pierre soon gave up the task and returned to Quebec in 1753. But Duquesne, the governor who had succeeded Jonquière, had now to devote all his energies to defending the territory already owned by France. No further explorations could be undertaken at that time, and the brothers Vérendrye, to whom Canada and the United States owe so much, spent the remainder of their lives in obscure poverty.

Services Unappreciated.

CHAPTER XIII.

INDIAN WARS.

In the first half of the eighteenth century there were two wars between France and England,—The War of the Spanish Succession (1702-1713), and the War of the Austrian Succession (1741-1748). The former was closed by the Treaty of Utrecht which gave Acadia, Newfoundland and Hudson Bay to England, and left France in possession of Canada, the islands in the Gulf of the St. Lawrence, Cape Breton, and Louisiana. The latter, or the war of the Austrian Succession, was closed by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, by which all conquests were mutually restored. Thus it will be seen that the mother countries were at war for eighteen out of the forty-eight years. But in the American colonies a savage border warfare was going on almost continually.

Perpetual Warfare

A glance at a modern map of the Northern States from Maine to Dakota will show a network of railway lines, with numerous dots representing cities, some of them very large and important, containing many thousands of people. We know that those railways pass through cultivated farms and rush by busy factories. In many places the cars are loaded with ores, coal, or other products of the mines. In Maine and some of the north western states there are still great forests which the lumbermen are rapidly clearing away. Two hundred years ago it was very different. West of northern New York there were no roads save Indian trails. Boston, on the coast, was an important, though still a small city. To the north west of that, Albany was the only place that could be called a town. Here and there in Maine, New Hampshire, and northern New York were rough clearings on which stood a cluster of log houses surrounded by a line or fence of stout posts or logs, set upright in the earth, and called a stockade or palisade. Often, among the

stumps stood a single cabin—the home of some backwoodsman who ventured with his young wife and little family to brave the dangers of a forest life alone. He never went outside without his gun and generally left another with his wife who, with anxious though resolute heart and watchful eyes, awaited his return.



FRONTIER VILLAGE PALISADE, 1704.

In New England, at intervals along the banks of the rivers, were to be seen the wigwams of the Abenakis. Sometimes, however, their dwellings were built after the fashion of the white settlers. Around or near the encampments were cultivated fields. Near the lakes of northern New York were the Iroquois towns, surrounded by fields of maize, beans, and pumpkins. On the shores of the western lakes and in the valley of the Mississippi dwelt unnumbered tribes of savages upon whom the coming of the white man had, as yet, but little influence. These western tribes were friendly to the French rulers of Canada—often false, always fickle, but still, on the whole, friendly.

The Iroquois or Five Nation Indians, except the Senecas, either sided with the English or were neutral. They wished to buy the furs from the western tribes and exchange them with the English and Dutch at Albany for English goods and English rum. The goods were both better and cheaper than those offered by the French at Montreal or sent by them to the western posts. To prevent this trade without going to war with the Iroquois was the hardest task the Canadian officials had to perform.

The Abenakis and other New England tribes, as well as the Micmacs of Acadia, were friends of the French. They were nominal Christians and their missionaries had great influence

over them. Besides these there were, near Quebec, settlements of Christian Hurons, Mohawks, and Algonquins. These mission Indians, as they were called, formed part, and a very important part, of the French forces.

Governor Vaudreuil spared neither expense nor pains to prevent the Indians on the New England frontier from making peace with the British colonies. As long as these Indians were hostile no British settlements could be made near Canada, and there would be little danger of an army marching through the northern wilderness, infested by bands of savages, into the French province. Hence it came that in time of war French officers led the Indians against the New England frontier and in time of peace French governors urged them to attack the common enemy. The history of the time is full of stories of these border raids. Two examples have been selected to show the character of this horrible warfare: Deerfield and Norridgewock.

Indians' Friendship a Necessity.

It was a midwinter night almost two hundred years ago. On the northern border of Massachusetts stood the village of Deerfield. It consisted of forty-one houses. The site chosen was the raised meadows near the bank of a river. In the middle of the village was a palisade, within which were some fifteen strongly built dwellings, with their outhouses. The Puritan community had placed here its meeting house. To this spot came in time of danger not only the villagers but all the people of the surrounding country. On this cold winter night there were nearly three hundred men, women and children at Deerfield, for there were rumors abroad that the Indians were on the war path. Among the number were twenty volunteers. They kept careless guard, however, believing that the threatened danger was still far distant. The snow had drifted in great banks to the top of the palisade and the packing crust was firm enough to carry the weight of a man.

A Border Raid.

Outside in the forest lay a band of Canadians and Indians shivering and starving. Their leader was Hertel de Rouville. In the cold and darkness that comes before the dawn the crouching foe moved toward the sleeping village, halting every now and then, so that a listener might mistake the sound of their marching for the rustling of the wind among the icy boughs of the forest.

Just inside the fort was the house of the minister, Mr. Williams. He was awakened by the sound of shouts and blows to see painted savages bursting through the shattered doors of the room where he slept. In a moment two of his eight children with their black nurse lay dead before him. He and his delicate wife were soon bound and helpless. Some of his neighbors escaped, but many were killed and more were captured. The house of one of the New Englanders, named Stebbins, was bullet-proof. In it were seven men, four or five women, and a number of children. The men fired through the loopholes while the women moulded bullets for them. The Indians tried to set fire to the house, but were at last driven off. They had lost several in killed and wounded. Three of the defenders were killed, two men and a woman.

At sunrise a war-party and a wretched train of over a hundred prisoners were on their way to Canada. On that terrible march all but the strongest died. The Indians, with cruel mercy, killed those who could go no farther and whom none of the party were able to carry. Early on the march Mr. Williams learned of the death of his wife. Those of the captives who at last arrived in Canada were kindly treated. The little daughter of the minister remained at one of the missions with the Indians who had carried her away. She grew up with them and married one of their number. In after years she visited her old home with her children, but nothing would induce her to stay there. In 1706, two years after their capture, her father and brothers were re-

Prisoners Kindly Treated.

doomed with a number of other prisoners, who at various times and in different places had fallen into the hands of the French.

The New England colonists did not suffer these Indian outrages to go unpunished. This will be seen in the story of Norridgewock, a town on the River Kennebec, in Maine.

Here, in the first quarter of the eighteenth century, lived a tribe of Abenaki Indians and their missionary, Sebastien Rale. There were about fifty or sixty warriors, with their squaws and children. Their houses were built much in the English way, but at this time the village was not defended by a stockade. Near the place was a little mission church. For several years this and other tribes of Abenakis had been harassing the settlers, who, as they thought, had wronged them out of their land. Rascally traders and lawless borderers had moreover too often treated the savages with brutality and insult.

For nearly four years the authorities had allowed the Indians to keep the settlers in terror. At length in 1724 a company of two hundred militiamen, with three Mohawks, was sent to destroy Norridgewock and capture Rale. As they were filing through the forest the New Englanders met two squaws; they shot one and captured the other. It was afternoon when they reached Norridgewock. An Indian saw them, gave a war-whoop and ran for his gun. Squaws and children rushed screaming to the river. The Indians ran to meet the enemy, but in their excitement they fired without doing much harm. Before they could re-load, the English fired a volley which killed a large number. The Indians returned the fire, then fled to the river, hoping to wade or swim across. Their canoes were useless, as they had left their paddles in the cabins. Many were shot in the water or as they climbed the opposite bank.

Attack on Norridgewock.

When the pursuers returned to the village they found that Rale had shut himself into one of the houses, and was defending himself from a number of the party who had stayed behind.

The door was forced open and the missionary was shot. The Indian chief, Mogg, was in another house. He had killed one of the Mohawks and was shot by the brother of the savage. The soldiers then murdered Mogg's squaw and his two children. The village was plundered, the images in the church destroyed and the sacred vessels carried off. No sooner were the soldiers out of sight than the Mohawks stole back and set fire to the church and houses.

Fire and Plunder.

But it can serve no good purpose to dwell on these tales of a bygone time. The red man has almost vanished. The race of *coureurs-de-bois* who accompanied him on his raids has also disappeared. For generations the descendants of the New England frontiersman and the French partisan have worked harmoniously together in cities built on rivers whose banks so often resounded to the war-whoop or re-echoed the borderer's yell.



CHAPTER XIV.

THE FINAL CONFLICT.

During Queen Anne's war, the only event which concerned Canada as apart from Acadia, besides the incidents of the border warfare, was "Walker's Expedition" against Quebec. Admiral Walker commanded the fleet and General Hill the army, but though they had twice the number of men that Wolfe had when he took Quebec, they abandoned their project before ever reaching the citadel and sailed back to England in disgrace.

The ink was hardly dry on the parchment of the treaty of Aix la Chapelle when events began which ended in the last great war between France and England on the American continent. In midsummer of the year 1749 Galissonnière, Governor and Commander-General of Canada, sent Céloron de Bienville into the valley of the Ohio, to occupy it for France. At several places Bienville proclaimed Louis XV. lord of the entire region watered by the Ohio and the streams flowing into it throughout its whole course from the Alleghanies to the Mississippi. Plates of tin bearing the arms of France were nailed to trees, and plates of lead with a long inscription were buried near these trees, as a token and a record of the French claims. The place chosen was generally the junction of one of its tributaries with the main stream of the Ohio river. But Bienville had more important work to do than nailing up tin plates or burying leaden ones. English traders from Pennsylvania, Virginia, and New York had crossed into the valley, made friends with many tribes, and established a thriving trade among them. As Bienville passed through the valley he strove to win the Indians back to their allegiance and to drive away the English intruders. He was not very successful; and when he returned to Montreal,

Establishing French Claims.

after travelling more than 3,000 miles, this was his report: "All I can say is that the nations of these countries are very ill-disposed towards the French and devoted entirely to the English."

The Ohio Company.

While Bienville was fulfilling his mission, a company of traders called the Ohio Company was formed in Virginia to settle the fertile valley of the beautiful river which formed the north-western boundary of that state. The following year they sent a trader named Christopher Gist to explore the country. He, in company with a man named Croghan, sent by the governor of Pennslyvania to renew the chain of friendship with the Indians, went all through the valley and was everywhere well received by the savages.

On their return the emissaries urged upon the governments of Virginia and Pennsylvania the necessity of building forts and trading-stations among the Indians. The governors of both colonies wanted to follow this advice, but neither of their assemblies would grant them money, and without it nothing could be done. The governor of New York also asked the legislature for money to help Pennsylvania to gain the friendship of the Ohio Indians, but no money was granted. Why were the Assemblies so obstinate? For one thing the boundary between Virginia and Pennsylvania was not settled, and each province was afraid that any change made might be for the advantage of its neighbor. Then there was always a quarrel between the Assembly and the governor of each province. The Assembly elected by the people thought the governor sent by the King of England wanted to deprive them of their right to manage their own affairs in their own way; while the governor was always afraid that the Assembly would try to take from His Majesty, whose servant he was, the little power that was left to him. Thus, scarcely any law was ever passed or money granted without a long dispute between the Assembly and the governor.

Internal Dispute.

While Dinwiddie, Lieutenant-Governor of Virginia—who seems to have been the most clear-sighted as well as the most energetic of the governors of the provinces—was quarrelling with his Assembly and writing to the Home Government to send him money to build a fort, Duquesne, the new governor of Canada, despatched a body of soldiers to build a fort on Lake Erie and another called Fort Le Boeuf, a little farther inland. (See p. 87).

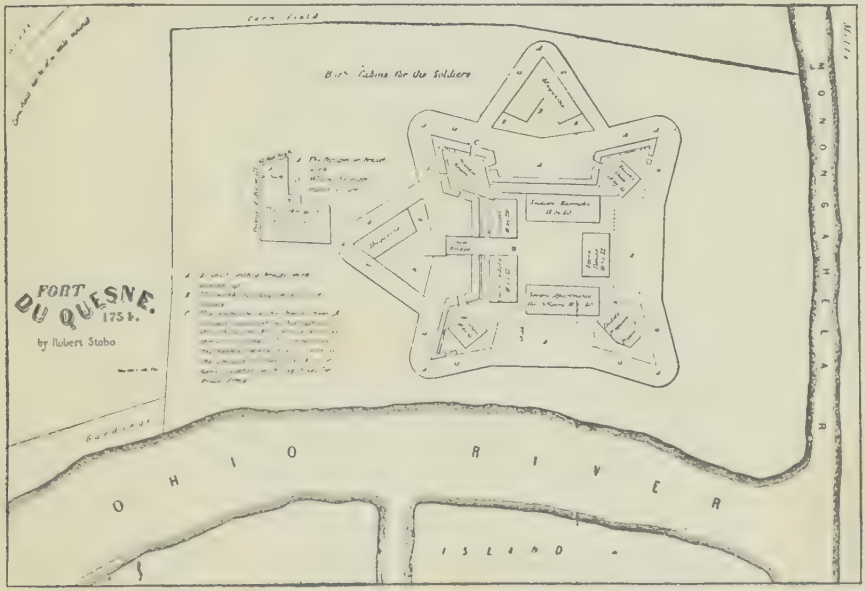
Late in the autumn of 1753 a little party of eight, led by a tall young Virginian of twenty two, made their way through the dripping leafless forests, over mountains and across rivers to Fort Le Boeuf, to demand why the French had invaded English territory. The young man was George Washington, sent hither by Governor Dinwiddie. The officer in command of the fort treated him courteously, sent back a civil answer to his master, but remained where he was.

The next year, 1754, a party was at length sent from Virginia to build a fort where Pittsburg now stands. While a band of forty Englishmen were working at this task a fleet of canoes came bounding down the Alleghany, and five hundred Frenchmen drove the English off, destroyed their half-finished work and immediately proceeded to construct a fine fort on one of the best sites in America—Fort Duquesne.

Fort Duquesne.

This act was looked upon by the Virginians as the beginning of war, although no blood had been shed. Without waiting for orders from England, Dinwiddie sent as many soldiers as he could collect, toward Fort Duquesne, under Fry. Washington with a detachment went forward to make a road across the mountains. The distance to be traversed was one hundred and forty miles. When Washington had reached Great Meadows, a level place not far from Fort Duquesne, he made an entrenchment and sent out scouts to look for the enemy. He soon got word from a friendly trader that a number of Frenchmen had been at his house the day before. A party of seventy-five men was sent

out, who searched all day without finding anyone. In the evening an Indian sent by a friendly chief whom the English called the Half-king, brought word that the soldiers were hiding in a glen some distance away. Washington with forty men hurried off to find them. He was joined by the Half-king and some of his warriors. They came upon the French who at once snatched their guns. The English fired. Jumonville, the commander, and nine others were shot and twenty-two were captured. The French then pretended that they were sent by



the commander of Fort Duquesne to bring Washington a summons to leave the country. They had the summons with them, but why had they lurked around for two days without delivering it? It was afterwards learned that Jumonville had orders to send two scouts back to Fort Duquesne as soon as he found the English, before delivering the summons. It is hard to understand the reason, unless it was that the commander of the fort might send him reinforcements, if necessary. War was begun. The

Fort "Necessity."

English troops were hurried forward. Fry was dead, and Washington took command. A rude fort was constructed, called by the young commander "Necessity."

Reinforcements had been sent to Duquesne, and a brother of Jumonville set out with a large party of French and Indians to avenge his death. Washington, with about three hundred and fifty men, awaited the attack of double the number of the enemy. The French mounted the hills around and, sheltered behind bushes, fired at the English. The English stood their ground and returned the fire as best they might. The rain fell heavily, wetting the guns of both parties as, for nine long hours of the summer day, they strove to destroy each other. The English were half starved. Their powder was nearly gone. Their guns were foul and they had no means of cleaning them. The French asked them to surrender. They were to march out with drums beating and the honors of war, carrying their cannon and property with them. On the other hand they were to return the prisoners taken in the skirmish with Jumonville and leave hostages for their safe return. Washington could do nothing else but comply. The next morning, the fourth of July, 1754, he set out on his difficult retreat of fifty two miles over the Alleghany mountains to Will's Creek, where supplies had been left. He had failed and was forced to look on suffering which he could not relieve, for he had many sick and wounded men with him. But it was through trials of this kind that he developed the endurance and resourcefulness for which he afterwards became so famous, and we do not read that even here at the outset he made any complaint.

Nine Hours of Conflict.

CHAPTER XV.

THE CAMPAIGN OF 1755.

Although England and France still pretended to be at peace, they both sent out troops to America. Braddock, who was sixty-five years old, and who had spent most of his life in fighting for England on the continent of Europe, was made commander-in-chief of the British forces. When he landed in Virginia a campaign was planned that, if successful, would have driven the French from the Ohio valley, and cut off the valley of the St. Lawrence from the region of the western lakes and the Mississippi. It would also have closed the road from Canada to the New England frontier, and made Acadia, in fact as well as in name, a British province.

Plan of Campaign.

Braddock himself was to march into the valley of the Ohio, and capture Fort Duquesne. Shirley, the brave and enterprising, though vain and often rash governor of Massachusetts, was to capture Niagara. William Johnson, whose long residence among the Iroquois had given him great influence among them, was to obtain their assistance and go by way of Lakes George and Champlain to seize Crown Point, the great fortress that barred the way to Montreal; and a force of colonials under Colonel Robert Monckton was to take Fort Beauséjour in Acadia. We shall see what success attended each of these expeditions.

The road through Pennsylvania to Fort Duquesne was shorter than one through Virginia; moreover, Eastern Pennsylvania was thickly settled, while much of Virginia was, in those days, still a wilderness, yet, strange to say, the longer path was chosen. Supplies were hard to get. The Quakers of Pennsylvania would not sell horses, waggons, or provisions to the king's troops. It

was not till Benjamin Franklin who was trusted by them, showed them that it was to their interest as well as it was their duty to supply the soldiers, that Braddock was able to buy the needed stores and means of transportation. A body of Virginians under Dunbar joined the forces, and George Washington was one of Braddock's aides-de-camp. A party of wild backwoodsmen and a number of Indians would have joined the general's forces, but they would not submit to the discipline of the British army. It

Braddock's March.



BRADDOCK'S FIELD.

was the 10th of June before Braddock started on his march from Fort Cumberland on the eastern side of the Alleghanies, near the head of the Potomac. The soldiers had to make a road as they went. As they toiled on over the mountains they formed a living chain four miles in length. They moved so slowly that by Washington's advice the heaviest of the stores, with a sufficient guard, were left to come on as they could, while a body of twelve hundred men hurried forward to Fort Duquesne. But even yet the young Virginian's patience was sorely tried by the deliberation with which the regulars levelled hills and bridged rivers which the colonials would have ridden over or waded through.

At length, however, they reached the Monongahela. Just after they had crossed it and were within eight miles of Duquesne, they were attacked by some nine hundred Indians, Canadians and French soldiers. A volley of musketry and grape-shot from the vanguard put the Canadians to flight and drove the Indians to shelter. Braddock drew his army up in battle array. The French and their savage allies gained the heights in front and on either side of his army. The Indians, sheltered behind rocks and trees, poured a terrible fire into the troops that, drawn up in line, formed a target for their bullets. The Virginians would have fought their enemies in their own fashion, but Braddock ordered them back, and when some of his own soldiers followed their example, their enraged commander beat them into their ranks with his sword. With reckless and, alas! useless gallantry, the British officers strove to force their men to stand their ground, or led them forward to attack their invisible foe. The poor fellows soon became so panic-stricken that when they did fire it was often into their own disordered ranks. The fight lasted but three hours, and at the end of that time sixty three out of eighty six officers were killed or disabled. Braddock was mortally wounded. Four horses had been shot under him, and he fell just as he had ordered a retreat and was striving to force his men to retire in order. Washington escaped as by a miracle.

In Battle Array.

Braddock, as he lay dying, was heard to murmur: "Who would have thought it?" and at last, "We shall know better next time." Dunbar, who was left in command, withdrew his army from the Virginian forests to Philadelphia.

The retreat of the army had left the road open between Fort Duquesne and the British settlements. Over it, to their everlasting disgrace, the French for two years sent bands of savages to slay and torture the unprotected frontiersmen of Pennsylvania and Virginia. Scarcely less guilty were the

governors and assemblies who allowed defenceless men, helpless women and innocent children to fall a prey to these human wolves, while they wasted their time in unprofitable disputes. No wonder George Washington, to whom was given the impossible task of defending hundreds of miles of frontier with a handful of soldiers, exclaimed: "The supplicating tears of the women and the moving petitions of the men melt me into such deadly sorrow that I solemnly declare, if I know my own mind, I could offer myself a willing sacrifice to the butchering enemy, provided that would contribute to the people's ease."

George Washington.

On the Mohawk River lived, for twenty years previous to the opening of the war, an Irish gentleman named William Johnson. He had been sent to New York when a youth to manage the estates of his uncle, Admiral Warren, who owned a great extent of wild lands there. Johnson made friends with the Indians, and accordingly was given charge of the expedition against Crown Point, for in the middle of the eighteenth century, Englishmen as well as Frenchmen considered it no disgrace to employ the scalping knives of the savages against their enemies. The soldiers were in camp, but the supplies were not at hand and many precious weeks passed idly at Albany before Johnson's army was prepared to march. At length all was ready and about two thousand New Englanders and three hundred Mohawks proceeded through the forests of northern New York to Fort Lyman (afterwards Fort Edward), near the source of the Hudson, and thence to the head of Lake George, where Fort William Henry was afterwards built (see map, p. 87).

Proceedings Delayed.

At the lower end of Lake Champlain the French had built a strong post called Crown Point, and on a promontory at the outlet of Lake George stood Ticonderoga. The French commander-in-chief, a German, Baron Dieskau, was at Crown Point with three

thousand five hundred men. In September he advanced along the lakes to attack the English with a large force of regulars, Canadians and Indians. Johnson heard that he intended to attack Fort Lyman. He sent out a thousand men to meet him, but they fell into an ambush. Many were killed and the rest rushed back to camp. Rude barricades were hastily thrown up and the men ranged in order of battle behind them. They fought till near nightfall, when the French gave up the contest and retreated. Dieskau was wounded and taken prisoner. The Indians wanted to kill him in revenge for the death of their chief who had fallen in the morning's skirmish, but Johnson protected him and he was sent to England as a prisoner of war. Describing the battle afterwards, the French general said that the provincial soldiers fought in the morning like good boys, about noon like men, and in the afternoon like devils. The losses on either side did not reach three hundred men.

Crown Point.

A Fierce Fight.

Johnson did not follow up his success. He built Fort William Henry near the battlefield, but Crown Point and Ticonderoga continued to guard the Canadian frontier. He was rewarded for his victory in the battle of Lake George, with the title of baronet and a grant of five thousand pounds.

While Braddock was preparing to make his way over the forest-clad mountains of Virginia, into the Ohio Valley, a little army of two thousand New England volunteers waited impatiently in the staid City of Boston for the muskets which were coming from England to complete their equipment. They had enlisted at the call of Colonel Winslow, who, in obedience to the order of Governor Shirley, had left his farm to lead an expedition against the French in Nova Scotia. Winslow's commander-in-chief was a British officer named Monckton.

The French had determined to regain Acadia. They had built a strong fort called Beauséjour, on the marshes in the isthmus of Chignecto. Within and near the fort, were great numbers of Acadians who had been induced by threats or persuasion to leave their farms and place themselves under the protection of the French flag. Beauséjour was commanded by Vergor, a dishonest and cowardly officer, who thought more of robbing the king than of serving him.

Toward the end of May the muskets arrived and three ships laden with soldiers made their way from Boston up the Bay of Fundy and anchored within five miles of Beauséjour. In a few days Monckton's forces were ready to attack, but no sooner had the first bomb broken into the fort than the French offered to surrender. The garrison was allowed to go to Louisbourg on condition that they would not bear arms again in Canada for six months.

Surrender of Beauséjour.

The events that followed the surrender of Fort Beauséjour have already been described in the chapter on Acadia Under the English.

We must now follow the fortunes of Governor Shirley, who had undertaken, as his part of the campaign, the capture of Niagara, the most important of the French outposts. If it were once in the hands of the English the valley of the Mississippi would be separated from that of the St. Lawrence. It would then be easy to capture the western forts, cut off as they would be, from supplies from Canada.

Shirley marched from Albany to the little frontier village of Schenectady. There the men were put on board boats which made their slow way by river and lake to the British fort of Oswego, on the southern shore of Lake Ontario. Shirley found there a wretched little fort, which the arrival of fifteen hundred soldiers, short of provisions, did not make more comfortable. He learned, to his dismay, that a body of soldiers equal in number to his

Shirley Dismayed.

whole force had come to Fort Frontenac and that, as soon as he should embark for Niagara, they intended to cross to Oswego and capture it. He heard, too, that Niagara was well defended. The English then must first attack Frontenac and, if successful, attempt to capture Niagara. Shirley was eager to go forward, but it was found that their boats were neither sufficient to hold the soldiers nor safe to navigate the dangerous waters of Lake Ontario.

Very unwillingly, Shirley gave up his plan for that season. His own expedition had been a failure, that of Braddock an overwhelming disaster. Johnson had won a victory, but failed to follow it up with the capture of Crown Point. The only real success gained was that of Monckton in Acadia.

Failures.



Robt Monckton

CHAPTER XVI.

THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR.

In the year 1756 France and England declared war against each other. Maria Theresa, Queen of Austria, determined to regain the province of Silesia, which Frederick the Great had seized. She allied herself with Russia and France as well as several smaller nations. England, fearing to lose Hanover, became the ally of Frederick. France sent a hundred thousand men to help the Queen of Austria, but could spare only twelve hundred men to reinforce the troops that were fighting for the possession of North America. To command them she sent the Marquis de Montcalm, an able general, a brave soldier, and a true-hearted gentleman, whose love for mother, wife and children may still be read in the letters written during the years of his exile. A quick temper marred his otherwise noble character. With him came three gallant officers, Bougainville, his aide-de-camp Levis, and Bourlamaque.

An Able General.

When Montcalm arrived in Canada he found himself at the head of about three thousand French regular troops, a force of some two thousand Canadian regulars who had been serving on garrison duty and who were under the immediate control of the Governor General, Vaudreuil, and the Canadian militia. This latter force consisted of every able bodied man in the colony. It comprised about 15,000 men, but the number under arms rarely, if ever, exceeded eleven hundred. The others were, however, employed in gathering and moving supplies. The arms and supplies of all were furnished by the king. The regulars were paid, but not the militia.

At the beginning of the war the greater part of the British soldiers consisted of provincials called from the farm, the workshop or the counter, to serve their country. Each contingent was equipped and supplied by the government of the province or colony in which it was raised. The officers were often chosen by the soldiers. The fault of such a force was that discipline was lax and supplies were badly managed.

Undisciplined Soldiers.

When Shirley came back from his fruitless expedition against Niagara, he determined to return the next summer and capture Niagara, Frontenac and Toronto. Accordingly, he hired two thousand boatmen, armed them and sent them to carry supplies to Oswego. They were under an officer named Bradstreet. Vaudreuil sent Villiers with a strong force to capture the convoy. Bradstreet arrived safely at Oswego and left his provisions and military stores there. On his return he defeated Villiers and his band.

Shirley had bitter enemies, who succeeded in persuading the British ministry to deprive him of his command. Loudon, the new commander-in-chief, gave up the plan of taking Niagara. Oswego, ill-defended and badly provisioned, was at the mercy of the enemy. Early in August of 1756 Montcalm and Vaudreuil, with a force of three thousand men well supplied with artillery, attacked the fort. The place was in no condition to hold out against overwhelming numbers and a well-directed cannonade. The garrison of sixteen hundred surrendered. Oswego was levelled with the ground and the bateaux and whale boats were burned. Niagara was safe and the French were left free to direct their whole force against the army at Lake George. Shirley was sent home in disgrace. He had made a mistake in not having left sufficient provisions in Oswego for the winter, but he had done and suffered much for his country.

Shirley in Disgrace.

Loudon had now about ten thousand men at his disposal at Lake George. Montcalm had over five thousand at Ticonderoga But the position was a strong one and Loudon did not dare to attack. At the close of the season both sides withdrew the greater part of their forces. During the winter a party of French and Indians came on the ice from Crown Point and made a vain attempt to destroy Fort William Henry. On the other hand the French were annoyed and harassed by the exploits of a band of New England rangers, under the leadership of Captain Robert Rogers. They captured men and carried off



ROGERS' RANGERS.

cattle from underneath the very walls of Ticonderoga. They made plans of the fortifications and kept the British officers informed of the doings and the strength of the enemy. Their deeds of daring and hairbreadth escapes formed the theme of many a tale told at New England firesides in after years.

Meanwhile Loudon was making plans for the next campaign. He intended to capture Louisburg, and if successful sail to Quebec. He withdrew his soldiers from the interior and wrote home for a fleet to support him. Admiral Holborne was sent

out. The French fleet arrived at Louisbourg before him, and when he and Loudon were ready to attack they found it impossible even to enter the harbor. On its return the fleet was shattered by a terrible September gale.

Loudon had taken away the British troops from New York. The capture of Oswego had enabled the French to withdraw the greater part of the garrisons of Niagara, Frontenac and Toronto. Vaudreuil and Montcalm determined to take Fort William Henry and perhaps capture Albany itself. To assist the regulars and militia, they gathered from the forests of Lake Superior, the prairies west of the Mississippi, and the neighboring missions a large force of Indians. A war-feast was held at the Lake of the Two Mountains, where the French generals met two thousand of their red allies. Soon an army of eight thousand, under command of Montcalm, was on its way to Ticonderoga. Leaving a detachment to hold this post, and sending Levis forward with 2,500 men to march by the side of the lake, the general embarked, with the main body of his army, on Lake George, and on the evening of the 2nd of August landed a short distance from the British fort.

Dusky Allies.

Fort William Henry was commanded by a brave Scotch officer named Monro. Under him were about two thousand men. His superior officer Webb was at Fort Edward with about sixteen hundred more. During the siege he received a reinforcement of two thousand men from New York, but even with these he did not dare to march to the relief of Monro, knowing that the woods between would be beset by the enemy.

Fort William Henry.

Montcalm summoned the fort to surrender. Monro refused. The French then dug trenches and proceeded to besiege it. On the 4th of August, 1757, the siege began; on the 8th the assailants had reached the walls of the fort. Three hundred of the defenders had been killed, their cannons were nearly all disabled, and smallpox had broken out. All Montcalm's cannon

could now be brought to bear on the walls that had been already breached. Further resistance was useless. Monro surrendered. Montcalm promised that the English garrison should march out with the honors of war and be escorted to Fort Edward by a detachment of French troops. The Indian chiefs agreed to the terms. But as the English were about to set out for Fort Edward the Indians fell upon them, plundered them, murdered many and carried off six or seven hundred prisoners. Montcalm succeeded in recovering four hundred of them. Others escaped to the woods. Fifty or more were butchered outright. Then the Indians left for Montreal, carrying two hundred prisoners and their plunder. Montcalm and some of his officers did their best to restrain the savages, but no wild animals could be more uncontrollable. The English declared that the Canadian officers did not try to prevent the outrage. When the panic was over the prisoners were sent under a strong escort to Fort Edward, and Fort William Henry was demolished.

Indians Uncontrollable.

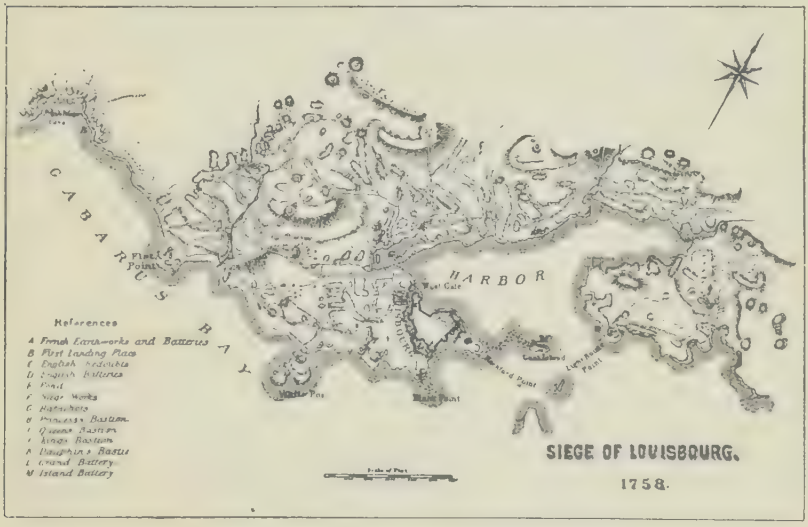
The news of the loss of Fort William Henry reached England at a time when she was used to the shameful story of defeat. "England has ceased to be a nation," wrote a clever observer of the time. But a change was coming. The incapable and corrupt politicians who governed England were to give place to an honest man of great ability and burning patriotism. William Pitt was made prime minister. He dismissed the officers who had so disgracefully mismanaged the war and appointed men of proved valor and worth to lead the English soldiers. He was a born leader of men. "Nobody ever entered his closet who did not come out of it a braver man," said one who knew him well.

He sent out three expeditions. One against Louisbourg, another against Ticonderoga, and the third against Fort Duquesne. General Amherst was placed in command of the expedition against Louisbourg, and

Louisbourg.

under him were Brigadiers Whitmore, Lawrence and Wolfe. Much against his will, Pitt left Lord Abercrombie in charge of the army on Lake George. Under him was Lord Howe, a young man whose character and ability won the love and admiration of all who met him. A veteran of middle age and an able and faithful soldier—Brigadier John Forbes—undertook the capture of Fort Duquesne. Finding it destroyed and abandoned, he built a new fort, which he called Pittsburg.

On the east of the island of Cape Breton the French had built the fortress of Louisbourg, which, at the beginning of the



Seven Years' War, was the strongest fortress in North America. The town contained four thousand inhabitants, and the fortifications circled round it for a mile and a half. There were more than three thousand regular troops in the garrison, besides militia and Indians. The ships in the harbor were manned by 3,000 men. The English attacked with a great fleet and an army of nearly 12,000 soldiers. The shore was bold and rocky, hard to approach in fine weather and inaccessible in a storm. It was the second of

A Great Fleet.

June, 1758, when the British fleet sailed into Gabarus Bay. Storm and fog prevented any landing till the eighth. The troops had been formed into three divisions. That under Brigadier Wolfe effected a landing, though the place was defended by batteries and a thousand soldiers. The rest of the army was soon on shore, and the siege began. Louisbourg was bravely defended. The wife of the commander, Madame Drucour, moved about among the inhabitants and soldiers, cheering and encouraging all. But the English lines drew nearer day by day. Toward the end of July it was seen that defence was no longer possible, and the garrison gave up the fight. By the terms of surrender Great Britain received not only Louisbourg, but Cape Breton and Isle St. Jean.

Fall of the Fortress.

Wolfe wished to go directly to Quebec, but neither Amherst nor the admiral considered it possible to attack at that time; and the brave young officer received the hateful commission of destroying the settlements and driving away the settlers along the Gulf of St. Lawrence. This done, thoroughly as he did everything, Wolfe returned to England.

Early in July an army of 15,000 men, among whom were 6,000 British regulars, gathered along the southern shores of Lake George. Massachusetts had sent one out of every four of her able bodied men and Connecticut one out of every three, to assist in the capture of Ticonderoga. Though Abercrombie was the leader in name, Howe was really in charge of this army. He had gone with Rogers on scouting parties and had learned that the uniform and discipline suited to the plains of Belgium or Germany were not fitted for forest warfare. The long queues and the lengthy coats of the men were alike discarded, and useless baggage left at home. The young commander himself set the example of simple living and was always at the post of danger. On the morning of the 5th of July this splendid army embarked for Ticonderoga. Before sunset the next evening her

gallant leader lay dead, pierced by a bullet from the rifle of a soldier belonging to an advance party of Montcalm's army. The loss of Lord Howe cost England dear. General Abercrombie fell back and lost a day. On that day Montcalm occupied a strong position, and so fortified it with timber and trees as to render it impregnable to an army without artillery. Abercrombie brought no cannon with him. The English attacked with fury, but were driven back again and again, and at dusk gave up the useless contest. They had lost more than nineteen hundred men, while the French loss did not amount to more than four hundred. It is no wonder that Montcalm was elated at this victory over a greatly superior force. Abercrombie retreated to his camp at the head of the lake and fortified himself there, much to the disgust of the New Englanders, who henceforth called the incompetent General "Mrs. Nabbycromby." In October General Amherst joined Abercrombie with five regiments from Louisbourg; but the commanders agreed that it was then too late to attack the fort.

Gallant Leader Dies.

Meanwhile Bradstreet had taken three thousand men and rowed up the Mohawk and down the Onondaga to Oswego, crossed Lake Ontario, and seized Fort Frontenac. He got possession of a great store of provisions and ammunition intended for the western forts. This was, next to Louisbourg, the greatest loss the French had yet suffered, as it divided the western possessions of France from those on the St. Lawrence. The Indians, too, who always leaned to the stronger party, began to desert the French. Thus closed the campaign of 1758. The French had won a great victory at Ticonderoga, but had lost Louisbourg in the east, Duquesne in the south, and Frontenac, which held the key of the west.

Seized Fort Frontenac.

CHAPTER XVII.

THE LAST STRUGGLE.

THE winter of 1758 9 was a wretched one in Canada. The colonists were in great poverty. The Intendant Bigot and his accomplices had for years been robbing them and the king at the same time. They were forced to sell their produce to the army at the lowest price, while the king was charged many times its value. By this and other dishonest schemes a tribe of rascals grew rich, while the colony was impoverished.

A Wretched Winter.

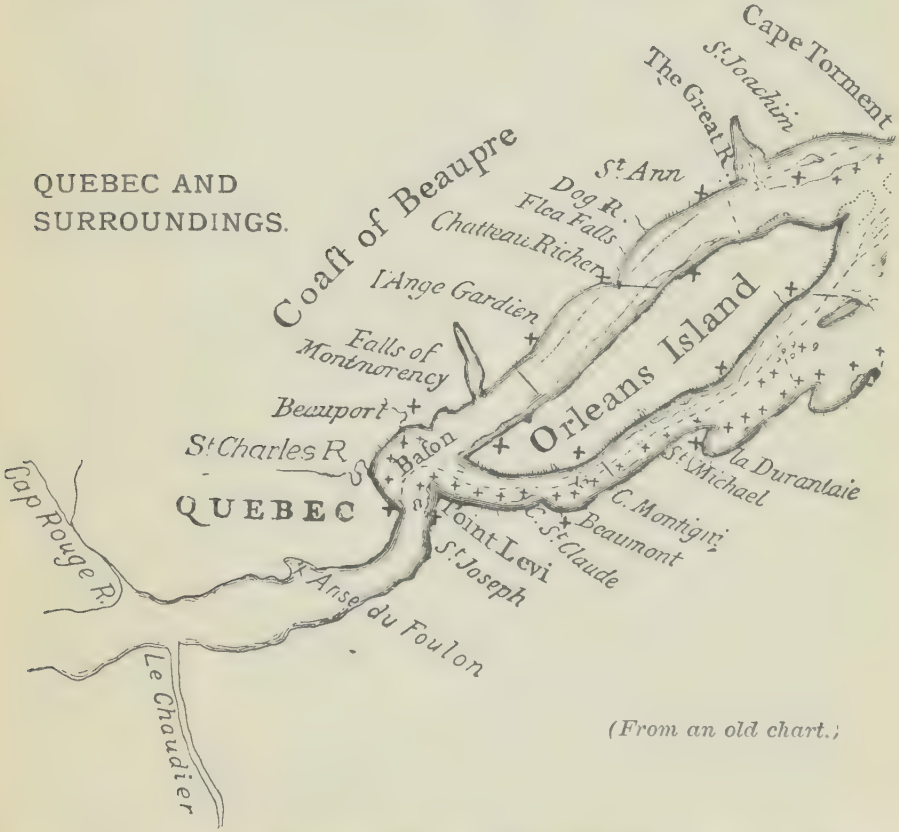
Defeat and dread were now added to their sufferings. Nor were their leaders happy. Vaudreuil, the governor, hated Montcalm, who disliked and despised the boastful, jealous, unscrupulous head of the colony. Nothing could be more unfortunate than this disagreement, for the union of these two military officers was necessary for the safety of the colony, which, to do them justice, they both desired to secure.

With the opening of spring the English would be ready to attack them, and no effort was spared to prepare for the attack. Every man who could carry a gun was ordered to hold himself in readiness to defend his faith and his home. There were three ways by which the English army could reach Canada, and all were difficult. One was by the St. Lawrence, on whose banks the city of Quebec seemed safe on its all but inaccessible rock, the second, by Lakes George and Champlain, and the Richelieu River was guarded by two strong forts and an island (Isle Aux Noix), which could be fortified so as almost to block the waterway, and the third was by the Upper St. Lawrence, with its great chain of rapids. The French made haste to secure their defences, when word reached them that

Wolfe was coming to Quebec with a great fleet. All the troops except those which guarded the Richelieu were summoned to Quebec. Montcalm and Vaudreuil encamped their soldiers for seven or eight miles along the north bank of the St. Lawrence, between the Montmorenci and the city. Near the Montmorenci was Levis' division. In the centre Montcalm held command; while near

Troops in Readiness.

QUEBEC AND SURROUNDINGS.



(From an old chart.)

the St. Charles, Vaudreuil had his headquarters. Earthworks defended the camp from the cannon of the fleet or attack from the river.

Wolfe arrived at the end of June, 1759. The commander to whom had been intrusted the difficult task of taking Quebec,

was only thirty-three years old, but he had been in the army since he was fifteen. He was the son of a distinguished British officer. His mother was a beautiful and accomplished woman. James Wolfe was an affectionate and dutiful son. Though a gallant soldier and a strict and, when need was, a stern officer, he was fond of dogs and loved children. No man ever looked less like a hero. He was always ill, for he suffered from a mortal disease which made him pale and thin. His features, except his eyes, were exceedingly plain, not to say ugly, and his red hair was the jest of even his dearest friends. Yet this rude casket held the jewel of a brave, undaunted spirit whose unselfish devotion to duty won the love and confidence of every one who knew him.

The British army landed and encamped on the Island of Orleans, which forms the eastern boundary of the harbor of Quebec. Their first movement was to seize Point Levi on the opposite side of the river, and there throw up batteries from which to cannonade the city. Some days later Wolfe formed a camp east of the Montmorenci. He made an attack on Lévis' camp which lay on the west side of that river; but a heavy rainstorm brought the battle to an end, and he abandoned the position. Autumn was approaching. Wolfe, who was never well, now, to the sorrow and dismay of the army, fell seriously ill; but, sick or well, his busy brain never rested. Quebec, he saw, could not be taken this year from below. His ships gradually sailed under the batteries of the city, and many of them anchored above. But the rocks were steep and well guarded. What hope to scale these precipices where a handful of men could check an army? A brave and watchful officer, Bougainville, had charge of the detachments which guarded these heights. His headquarters were at Cap Rouge, and for twenty miles along the St. Lawrence, from Cap Rouge to Quebec, his soldiers were on the watch. Wolfe made up his mind to land

Guarding the Heights.

his men at a place called Anse du Foulon, now Wolfe's Cove, about a mile and a half above the city. The river bank was very steep and wooded to the water's edge, and guards were posted on the top of the bank. For days before the night of the attack the English ships and boats had kept dropping down with the ebb and returning with the flowing tide till Bougainville's soldiers were worn out with following their movements along the shore. Wolfe learned from deserters that the French commander had promised to send down a convoy of provision boats on the night of the twelfth of September, and that Vergor, the officer who had charge of the guard at the top of the cliff, had allowed nearly all his men to go home to reap their harvests. On the appointed night the ships below Quebec pretended they were going to land soldiers at Beauport, and Montcalm prepared to drive them off.

At Cap Rouge, where the real attacking party were collected, all was quiet. About two o'clock in the morning the boats were launched and drifted slowly down stream. Twice they were challenged, but each time one of the officers answered in French. The sentries were deceived into believing they were the French provision boats. Wolfe spent the anxious moments in repeating aloud the verses of Gray's "Elegy in a Country Churchyard" to the officers about him. When they arrived at the spot appointed, a volunteer party of twenty-four climbed the heights and soon overpowered and captured the few Frenchmen found near the top—Vergor, their commander, being among them. No considerable force was there, though a battalion had orders to encamp near the spot. Some excuse for this oversight may be found in the fact that the place was considered impossible of approach. At a given signal the soldiers scrambled up the heights, each party making it easier for the next, till in the cold dawn of the autumn morning an army of nearly four thousand men stood on the plains above the precipice. Wolfe, who had risen from a sick bed and dragged

A Great Army.

himself up the cliff, rode forward and chose his ground, and soon the long files of soldiers were formed in array of battle on a plain within a mile of Quebec. The place had once belonged to a man named Abraham Martin, after whom it is still called the Plains of Abraham. Between the English and the walls of the city was a ridge that was soon occupied by the soldiers, who, if they had been at their station at the right time, might have prevented Wolfe from landing.



FALLS OF MONTMORENCI.

Where was Montcalm? Till one o'clock he had been watching the fleet at Beauport. Towards daylight he had heard the cannon which Bougainville's men had fired at the hindmost boats, and sent a message to Vaudreuil to find out what was the matter. Receiving no answer, he and his aide-de-camp about six o'clock rode up to the St. Charles, where to his dismay he caught a glimpse of the scarlet hues of British soldiers. He gave orders for the troops between the Montmorenci and the St. Charles to advance, and soon soldiers, Canadians and Indians came pouring over the St. Charles bridge. They entered through the Palace Gate and, crossing the city, passed out again by the St. Louis

Gate and St. John's Gate to take their station opposite Wolfe's little army. Vaudreuil did not come to his support, neither would the commander of the garrison send sufficient cannon to the general. About ten o'clock Montcalm decided to attack. The French advanced, firing as they came. The British soldiers quietly awaited their coming. When the enemy were within forty yards, Wolfe gave the word to fire, and volleys of musketry so strong and steady that they sounded like a cannon shot, spread dismay and confusion in the French ranks. Wolfe's soldiers then charged and the French retreated in disorder; followed by the English with their bayonets, or by the fierce and fleet Highlanders with their broadswords. In the beginning of the English advance, Wolfe was mortally wounded by a shot from a party of Canadians who had hidden among some bushes. As he lay dying, one of his attendants shouted out, "They run, . . . they run!" "Who run?" asked Wolfe. "The enemy, sir," was the reply. "Then," said Wolfe, roused from the death-torpor which was stealing over him, "send Burton with Webb's regiment (which had been kept in reserve) to cut off their retreat"; and, turning on his side, he uttered his last words, "Now God be praised. I shall die in peace!"

Retreat of the French.

A few minutes later Montcalm received his death-wound, and although he lingered for a few hours, he had not the mortification of seeing the surrender of the fortress he had given his life to save. Thus, far from mother, wife and children and the home he loved so dearly, died the gallant Frenchman whom every Canadian, whether of French or British descent, delights to honor.

The French army was left without a head, for although Vaudreuil could boast and bluster, he had not the cool courage needed to rally a defeated army. He had still many more men than the English invaders, and Bougainville would arrive with reinforcements in a few hours at most; yet he gave up the

contest and retreated toward Montreal. Left without support and almost without provisions, Ramesay, the commander of the garrison, surrendered and the English entered Quebec. The news was received in England with great joy, mingled with grief at the loss of the brave victor, General Wolfe.

The English Enter Quebec.

When the flying army met Lévis, who was coming from Montreal to its relief, that brave officer did not conceal his shame and indignation. He rallied the fugitives and hurried back to Quebec to avert its surrender. But he was too late. He collected men and provisions and in the early spring laid siege to the captured city. Murray, who had been left in command of the British, attacked him, and though Lévis made a gallant fight, he was forced to leave the field in the hands of the enemy.

The English were in a dangerous position. The walls of the fort were weakened. Disease and death had been busy among the soldiers, and they were surrounded by an enemy who had grown desperate and resolute. But men and officers alike worked with stubborn and cheerful determination, and as soon as the ice was gone from the river, ships arrived with supplies and reinforcements. The city was saved, the baffled enemy retired to Montreal, and many of the peasantry returned to their homes and submitted to the conqueror.

Before the taking of Quebec, and while Wolfe, sick and discouraged, was watching the French army on the banks of the St. Lawrence, Amherst had advanced to Ticonderoga with a great army. The French did not bide his coming but retired from the fortress and then from Crown Point, to fortify themselves at Isle aux Noix, in the river Richelieu, where they hoped to be able to prevent his further advance. In this way Amherst was held back for a time, and to Wolfe was left the glory of taking Quebec unaided, while the commander in chief spent the season in building forts and vessels for the next year's campaign.

Amherst had sent an army under General Prideaux to seize Niagara and rebuild Oswego. Colonel Haldimand, to whom the latter task had been entrusted, succeeded in holding his position, although attacked by a formidable army of French and Indians. At the beginning of the siege of Niagara Prideaux was killed. Sir William Johnson then took command, drove back or captured a large body of reinforcements that had assembled from the neighboring country, and at the end of July, 1759, compelled the fort to surrender. The news

French Leaders Disheartened.



PLAINS OF ABRAHAM.
With old monument to Wolfe in the foreground.

of this loss had greatly disheartened Vaudreuil and Montcalm before the battle of the Plains of Abraham.

The English were now left free to put forth all their strength in an attack on Montreal. Amherst's plan of campaign was that he should descend the St. Lawrence from Lake Ontario with the main army, that Murray should come up the river from Quebec, that Brigadier Haviland, who commanded the British forces at Crown Point, should force his way up the Richelieu, and that the three armies should meet before Montreal. Meanwhile a proclamation had been sent out declaring that if the

Canadians returned to their homes, their lives and property would be safe, but that the houses and barns of those men who were absent in the French camp, would be burned. To show that the threat was not idle, a settlement near Sorel, whose owners were at Isle aux Noix under Bourlamaque, was put to the flames. On the other hand those who submitted were treated with the greatest kindness by the English. The consequence was that large numbers of the militia gave up the hopeless struggle and returned to their homes.

Strange to say, considering the distance to be traversed, the three English armies arrived at Montreal at almost the same time and Montreal was compelled to surrender at discretion. Lévis and Vaudreuil pleaded to be allowed to march out with the honors of war, as the garrisons of Quebec and Niagara had done; but Amherst declared that the outrages which the French had allowed the Indians and Canadians to commit, should be punished by forcing the soldiers to lay down their arms and engage not to serve again during the present war. By the terms of the capitulation, Canada and all its dependencies passed to the British Crown. The Canadians were to be allowed the free exercise of their religion and left in the full enjoyment of their property. It is greatly to the honor of the British soldiers, that neither woman nor child was hurt by them or by their Indian allies. So far as America was concerned the Seven Years' War was over.

British Fair Play.

CHAPTER XVIII.

CONSPIRACY OF PONTIAC.

In 1760 the capitulation was signed which delivered up the whole of Canada to England, but the lilies of France still waved over the forts on the Great Lakes west of Niagara, in the Ohio Valley (except at Fort Pitt), and in the Illinois country.

This immense territory, guarded by a few widely separated and isolated posts, was then a wilderness. The traveller who would explore it must climb the mountains, urge his canoe along dark rivers bordered with dense forests, or, still farther west, make his way along the grassy prairie almost as trackless as the sea.

Comparison with the Past.

The land which is now the home of millions of people and which produces food for millions more, was then frequented by scattered bands of Indians who for the most part lived by hunting the wild creatures, the fiercest of which were far less dangerous than the savage hunters. Around their clusters of wigwams were clearings that showed how abundantly the rich soil repaid even the rudest cultivation. The corn, the pumpkins and beans, of which their crop consisted, were fastened to the roof of their lodges or were buried in the *caches* (as their underground stores of surplus food are called), to serve as a source of supply in case of need. They sold the skins of animals taken in the chase or trapped, to French, English or Dutch traders. They were seldom long at peace with one another, and the forest often echoed with the wild revelry of the war dance or thrilled with the terrible war whoop. Yet fickle and bloodthirsty as the Indians were, they had still the feelings and

instincts of men. They loved the land that bore them. They were grateful for true kindness, but they felt keenly and resented fiercely all insults. Like children, they obeyed and respected the man who was strong, unyielding and just. So far, the different tribes had to be dealt with separately. In 1763, for the first and last time, they united in a common cause under one leader.

Nature of the Red Man.



PONTIAC.

In September 1760, Major Robert Rogers, commander of the New England Rangers, was sent by General Amherst to receive the capitulation of the western forts. He was well-fitted for the task; he understood the art of forest warfare and his bravery was undoubted. On his way from Niagara to Detroit he met an Ottawa chief named Pontiac, who demanded by what right English armies were invading Indian territory. Rogers told him that the English had defeated the French and had become owners of all their possessions in North America. He said that he was on his way to receive the surrender of Detroit and to bring peace to both French and Indians. The great chief then consented to make peace with the English and to let them live in the country so long as they treated him with respect. Then he and the British officers smoked the peace-pipe and Rogers went on his way. He took possession of Detroit, and before the end of 1761 the red flag of England waved above every fort in Canada, and a handful of British soldiers occupied each lonely outpost.

The Pipe of Peace.

The transfer had been quietly made. Not a shot had been fired either by Frenchman or Indian. Yet ere two years had passed, every warrior in the west with the Seneca tribe of the Iroquois under the leadership of Pontiac, had taken the war-path against the English. Why had the chief broken his word?

From the first, the French had taken great pains to make friends of the Indians. They had given them presents, had made them welcome whenever they came to the forts to trade, had joined in their feasts and taken part in their councils. A considerable number of them, the *coureurs-de-bois*, had gone to their encampments, married wives from among them and adopted their dress and customs. It is true that the French had fought against the Iroquois who took sides with the English; but when peace was made, even with these, who were the fiercest of the Indians, Frenchmen were content to let bygones be bygones.

The British attitude was very different. To most English colonists the Indian was a pestilent creature, to be rooted out of the land as speedily as possible. Their traders were perhaps as honest as the French, but they treated their red customers with rudeness and often with insult. Now that they had conquered the French, the English acted as if they owned all the territory which before had been left in the possession of the Indians. They settled on their lands without asking permission or offering payment. The government sent none of the valuable presents of which the French king had been so lavish, and the savages felt as if they were neglected and despised as well as wronged.

English Attitude.

The French officers had allowed the Indians to lounge about the forts, and gentlemen who were familiar with the splendors of the French court learned not only to put up with the presence and habits of these savage dwellers of the forest, but to treat them with the utmost politeness; while no sooner did the English occupy the post than the Indian chiefs were ordered away, or dark looks and impatient gestures showed them but too plainly

that they were unwelcome guests. They soon grew angry and discontented. The French settlers or traders were not in the humor to act as peacemakers, and the lowering cloud burst in a terrible storm. The Indians, acting under the leadership of Pontiac, determined to drive the English from America. They were assured by the French that a great army was coming to regain for France their lost possessions. In the summer of 1763 the Indians attacked every English fort west of Niagara and took all except Detroit and Fort Pitt. Most of them were bravely defended, but in others the garrison was taken by strategy. This was the case at Michillimackinac on the Straits of Mackinac. The officers were off guard watching the Indians playing a game of lacrosse. The ball flew over the wall of the fort. The players rushed after it through the gates, followed by a throng of warriors. In a few moments the soldiers and English inhabitants were slaughtered.

A Costly Game of Lacrosse.

Detroit was the headquarters of Pontiac himself. Around the fort was a French farming settlement, and not far away was an Ottawa town and a village of the Wyandots, a tribe of the Iroquois. The commander of the fort was Major Gladwyn, a wise and gallant officer, who could neither be frightened nor deceived into leaving his post. For fifteen months he held out against his wily and resolute enemy. During the whole of that time the soldier who ventured alone outside the fort was instantly killed or taken prisoner. Thither were carried many of the captives taken in the war, and the helpless garrison heard almost nightly the terrible sounds which told them that defenceless men and women of their own kith and kin were suffering the most horrible agonies.

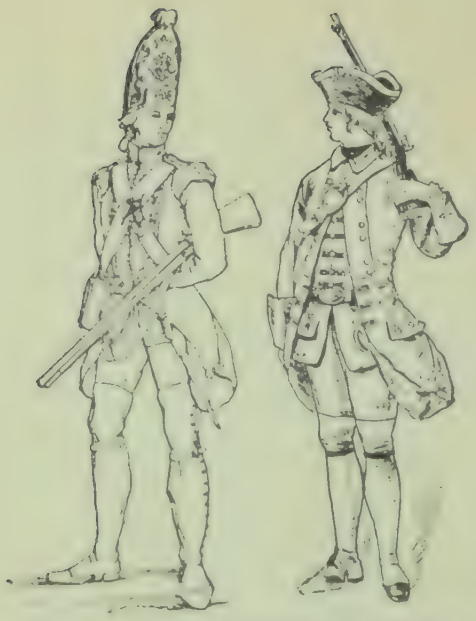
At Fort Pitt a brave Swiss officer, Colonel Henry Bouquet, with a few hundred resolute men, strengthened his defences till he was able to hold the savage hordes at bay. Tidings were brought to him from time to time that drove the color from

the faces of brave men and turned their hearts to stone. The Indians were pouring over the frontier—fire, bloodshed and desolation marking their trail.

During the year 1763 Sir William Johnson had succeeded in keeping four of the five Iroquois nations from attacking the English. He had sent letters to the home government pointing out that it would be wise to make friends of the Indians, as it was almost impossible to subdue races so scattered and so fickle. In the spring of 1764 he sent messages to all the Indian tribes inviting them to come to a great council at Niagara. He made peace with many of them, as they had suffered much during the winter. They had sold no furs and were badly off for blankets, ammunition and even food. They longed, too, for the white man's rum or brandy.

In the autumn of 1764 Bradstreet proceeded to the west with an army and relieved Detroit. Bouquet led a force of 1,500 men into the wilderness west of Fort Pitt and forced the Delawares and Shawanoes to sue for peace. When, at last, news of the treaty of Paris reached the western wilderness, Pontiac saw that the struggle was hopeless. Once more a fleet of canoes came down the lakes. They landed at Oswego. Here Pontiac and his baffled warriors met Sir Wm. Johnson and made a treaty of peace. This ended the Indian war of independence, and the North American Indian retreated before the axe of the settler or lived in the neighborhood of the white man, learning his vices but not imitating his virtues. A few years after, Pontiac was murdered by an Indian at a French village on the Illinois.

The Defeat of Pontiac.



BRITISH AND FRENCH SOLDIERS OF THE TIME.

CHAPTER XIX.

AFTER THE CONQUEST.

The capitulation of Montreal closed the Seven Years' War so far as Canada was concerned. The British were now masters of the land which France had spent more than a century and a half, and millions of money, in trying to colonize.

The officers and soldiers who had defended the colony, and the officials who had ruled it, were sent to France. Bigot and his rascally associates were called to account for their dishonesty, found guilty and punished. Some 60,000 French Canadians remained and became subjects of the king of England. Almost every able-bodied man had for many years been forced to take part in the war either as a soldier or a laborer. The crops and cattle of the Canadians had been seized for the French army,

and nothing given in return but worthless paper money. In some cases their houses and barns had been burned and their fields laid waste by the orders of the British generals. It is true that no woman nor child had been hurt, and no robberies had been permitted by these officers, yet there was great distress and want among all classes of Canadians.

How did the British generals behave to the people who were now at their mercy? Every Canadian may look back with pride on the record of these first British rulers of Canada.

Honorable Rulers. Amherst, who was commander-in-chief of the British forces in America, divided Canada into three districts. Murray remained in charge of Quebec, Burton was made governor of Three Rivers, and Gage of Montreal. Courts were organized and the old French laws relating to property were enforced. Criminals were dealt with by military law. The services of the Roman Catholic Church were held just as they had been before the conquest. Returns were made to the British government of the quantity of paper money with which the people had been paid by the French during the war; and a part of the face value of this money was obtained from France and paid to the Canadians who held the paper. No conquered people were ever treated with greater kindness and justice than were the Canadian French by General Murray and his brother officers; and, it should be added, the people responded to the treatment in a way that did credit to their good judgment and good feeling.

End of French Rule. In 1763 the Treaty of Paris was signed and Canada passed forever from the rule of the French. Of all her American possessions nothing remained except New Orleans (in Louisiana) and the little islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, near Newfoundland.

In 1764 George III. issued a proclamation making Quebec a province of the British Empire and appointing Murray its first governor-general, who with a council appointed by the king, was

to rule the country according to the laws of England. An Attorney General and Chief Justice were sent out from England. They understood neither the French language nor the old laws of the colony, and Murray found that the task of governing Canada was much harder than in the time of military rule. The officials sent out were often very ignorant and incompetent. The few British settlers were greedy of wealth and power. They were, with rare exceptions, men of little education and of low moral character. The courts charged exorbitant fees. There were not four hundred British Protestants in the province, yet they wanted to get leave to elect a parliament that would make laws for nearly 80,000 Roman Catholics. The French complained that those who were paid for managing the affairs of the country neither understood nor tried to understand the circumstances of the people.

Disturbances Arise.

Murray, who had been in Canada since 1759, knew and liked the French and did his best to prevent the English new comers from oppressing them. Wrongs were committed by both parties. Reports of quarrels were sent to England and Murray was required to give an explanation of the disturbed state of the colony. Yet in spite of discontent and disagreement Canada prospered. As wealth increased, trade grew, to the profit chiefly of British merchants, for the English law forbade the importation of any but British goods into British colonies. This meant that wine, sugar, tea, fruit, silk and all articles produced in foreign countries must first be taken to England and then sent out to the colonies in British ships.

Now, up to 1760 all goods imported into Canada came from France, and the merchants of that country did not want to lose a market which at that time was an important one. Accordingly they sent cargoes to the islands of St Pierre and Miquelon whence the goods were smuggled into Canada. Thus many a silk dress for madame, French ribbons and laces for the village belle,

tobacco for the habitant, or wine for the wedding feast, were forthcoming, which had never been landed at a Canadian port by vessels flying the Union Jack.

Murray was recalled in 1766. He defended himself manfully against the charges of his enemies. He kept the confidence of the government, and was entrusted with the defence of Minorca, which was besieged by the forces of France and Spain. Although the island was forced to surrender in 1782, the heroism of the general and his garrison won the admiration even of their enemies.

In October, 1766, the new governor, Sir Guy Carleton, arrived at Quebec. He soon saw that the province was suffering from the greed and the injustice of those sent to administer the laws. He reformed the courts and put an end to extortion. It was plain to the governor, as well as to all who studied the condition of the country, that government under English law was a failure.

Eminent lawyers both in Canada and in the mother country were asked to find out what were the faults of the present way of ruling Canada, and to suggest some better plan. Sir Guy Carleton went home in 1770 and remained some years to give the ministry advice and information about the state of the colony. The result of these labors was the Quebec Act, which ordained as follows :—

Quebec Act.

1. A council of not more than twenty-three nor less than seventeen members and a governor were to be appointed by the King of England to make ordinances for the "peace, welfare and good government of the province."
2. The old French laws relating to property (or the civil law) were to be restored, but all criminal cases were to be tried by English law.
3. The Roman Catholics were to have perfect freedom of religion, the priests were to be paid by their own people, as before the Conquest, and all the religious bodies except the Jesuits were to retain their property.

Though this Act has been severely criticized, it seems to have originated from a sincere desire to treat the new subjects of the king justly.

CHAPTER XX.

THE AMERICAN INVASION.

When Sir Guy Carleton returned as governor under the Quebec Act, the thirteen American colonies had already entered upon that course of resistance to the mother country which ended in the achievement of their independence as the United States of America. The discontented colonies did their best to induce the Canadians to join them in their revolt against England. Many of the British settlers in Canada had once lived in the old colonies, and therefore sympathized with those who strove for independence. Addresses were circulated among the French-Canadians, representing the English as tyrants, and advising revolt from the foreign yoke. The seigneurs and the priests were faithful to the British government, and some of the French militia served it gallantly. But in too many cases aid was given to the American invaders by furnishing them with supplies and transportation. In many districts the habitants, even when called upon by their seigneurs, refused to enroll for the defence of their homes against the expected invasion.

Revolt of the Colonists.

The first blow was struck by a rash Connecticut captain, named Ethan Allen, without the knowledge of those who directed affairs in the Thirteen Colonies. He surprised Ticonderoga and took the garrison prisoners. Those in charge of this fort never dreamed of keeping guard against their British fellow-colonists. Crown Point, where there were only some half dozen soldiers in charge, was also taken. (See p. 87.)

The First Blow.

When Carleton learned that Canada was likely to be attacked he was dismayed, having but a very small force of regulars

under his command, and knowing that many of the English-speaking inhabitants were disloyal. They hated the Quebec Act, and sympathized with the wrongs of the rebellious colonists. He found to his bitter disappointment that the French were not to be depended upon. He had made many enemies by contending for what he believed to be equal rights. They enjoyed their old religion, their old laws, their old language and a freedom of person and of action to which they had been strangers, at any rate during the later years of the French *regime*. The home government understood the state of affairs so little



CARLETON REVIEWING HIS TROOPS ON THE PLACE D'ARMES.

that they ordered him to send 3,000 soldiers to Boston to the assistance of Gage, the British general at that port. But Guy Carleton was not the man to sit idle. He sent the greater number of the soldiers under his command to St. John's and Chambly—forts on the Richelieu. Very soon a United States army, under General Montgomery, invaded Canada by way of Lake Champlain and the Richelieu. St. John's was bravely defended, and it was not till Montgomery was supplied with stores of food and ammunition by the cowardly surrender of Chambly that he was able to force

Invasion of Canada.

the starving garrison to surrender. He at once proceeded to Montreal. Carleton had left it defenceless, as he felt that he would need every soldier in the colony to guard Quebec.

In the meantime Benedict Arnold had arrived within a few miles of that fortress by way of the Kennebec and the Chaudière, the route so familiar in former years to the French and Indian war parties which went to desolate New England homesteads.

Carleton now rallied all his forces to the defence of the great Canadian stronghold. The French inhabitants there assisted him manfully. By the time Montgomery joined Arnold, winter had come. On New Year's Eve, 1775, the American generals attempted to surprise the garrison. They were defeated and Montgomery was killed. Arnold stayed near Quebec during the winter of 1776 and General Thomas went to reinforce him in the spring. But British ships arrived with men and supplies, the invaders were driven across the frontier, and Canada remained a British possession.

Canada Remains British.

Carleton hastened to build vessels with which to re-occupy Lake Champlain. An army of some 8,000 regular soldiers, British and Germans, had been sent to Canada. A body of Iroquois Indians joined the army. The western tribes also professed friendship.

In the autumn of 1776 the ships of Congress on Lake Champlain were destroyed and the forts on the Richelieu repaired and garrisoned. The winter of 1776 was spent by the governor in collecting stores and preparing for a fresh campaign. In the spring he received word that General Burgoyne was to be put in his place as commander-in-chief and sent from Quebec to join Lord Howe in New York. Carleton was to remain in charge of Quebec with 3,770 troops.

Burgoyne proceeded up Lake Champlain, took Ticonderoga, and advanced toward Saratoga, where he was surrounded by the troops of Congress. He stubbornly delayed a necessary

retreat until retreat was no longer possible, and was forced to surrender with his whole army. Thus the career of this brave but rash general ended in disgrace such as rarely falls to the lot of a British officer.

Hampered by the orders of an incapable and meddling war-minister, Governor Carleton resigned his position. Resolute, just, humane and far-seeing, he had preserved Canada a British province, and in spite of much provocation acted always so as to show the French-Canadians the blessings of English freedom. He was succeeded in 1778 by Governor Haldimand. The new governor had a very difficult duty to perform. Canada was in constant danger of invasion from the armies of the Thirteen Colonies. There were traitors around him. When France joined her forces to those of the rebellious colonists, she tried in every way to induce the inhabitants of Quebec to return to their old allegiance. With foes without and traitors within the colony, stern measures had often to be taken. No governor of Canada, who did his duty, could avoid making enemies; but those who have examined carefully the state of the colony in the period between 1778 and 1783, have found that in spite of the troubles of the time, the colony prospered and population increased.

Carleton Resigns.

The Colony Prospered.

Haldimand took measures to defend the western frontier. It was found impossible to hold the forts on the Illinois, and in 1779 they fell into the possession of the United States. But with that exception the western forts were retained by the British. Haldimand found time to build three canals on the St. Lawrence near Montreal—the beginning of our magnificent canal system—and to strengthen the fortifications of Quebec. After the close of the war he had to make provision for the settlement of the Loyalists.

CHAPTER XXI.

UNITED EMPIRE LOYALISTS.

While the fur traders, soldiers, and priests sent out by the kings of France were slowly planting a colony along the banks of the St. Lawrence, the land bordering the Atlantic Ocean between Acadia and Florida had been settled by Englishmen, and those English settlers differed from the French not only in race but also in spirit and aim.

Thirteen Colonies.

Between the years 1606 and 1732 thirteen self-governing colonies had been founded. These were Virginia, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New Hampshire, Delaware, Maryland, Pennsylvania, New York, New Jersey, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia. The greater number of these colonies had been settled by people who were driven from Great Britain either because they would not submit to kings who wanted to make their own wills take the place of the law of the land, or, as was oftener the case, because the laws of their country forbade them to obey what they believed to be the laws of God. These men and women sought and found in the Western wilderness that freedom and liberty of conscience for which they were ready to suffer the loss of all things. Unlike their French neighbors, they had no help from the parent country. The king of England sent each colony a governor, and they were all protected by British armies from foreign invasion, but the colonists themselves had, from the beginning, either to wrest their own living unaided, from the wilderness, or else return home to tyranny and persecution.

But they were strong men. They had counted the cost of leaving their homes and much that they held dear, and they were not now to be easily discouraged. In the beginning they

had to endure famine and disease, and they were in constant peril from savage tribes, but their courage and endurance were crowned with success. There were among them some merchants and fur-traders, but it was on farming that the colonists chiefly depended for their living. They worked hard and constantly, nor did they labor in vain. Comfortable homes were raised, and the surplus of their abundant harvests was sent to the seaports,

Courage Wins Success.



"COMFORTABLE HOMES WERE RAISED."

which soon grew into large cities; and in return for the farm products, they procured first the comforts of life, and in due time some of its refinements and luxuries.

After the conquest of Canada the English king, George III., and some of his statesmen, thought that as the Seven Years' War had been waged partly in defence of the colonies, they should pay a share of the debt; and the parliament, therefore, imposed duties on certain articles imported into the colonies and took measures to compel the colonists to pay the taxes.

The people of the thirteen colonies were not unwilling to help England defray the cost of the war, but they maintained that, as they sent no members to the British parliament, the British government had no right to make them pay taxes. Each colony had an assembly of its own, whose members were elected by the men of the colony. This was the only body that had a right to make any citizen pay a tax. Letters and messengers were sent to King George and his advisers deprecating the imposition of taxes by a government in which the colonists were not represented, and praying that they be allowed to raise their own contribution towards the expenses of the war and present it as a filial offering to the motherland.

Oppose Taxation.

But the king and parliament of England would not listen to these remonstrances and appeals. The colonists, on their part, were resolutely determined not to submit to what they thought was an injustice. An English army came over to punish their insubordination. The colonists raised levies and resisted the English soldiers, and thus began the American Revolution, which ended in forming a new nation, the United States of America.

At the beginning of the troubles almost every man of influence and ability agreed that the government of the mother country was treating the colonies badly. They joined in the remonstrances that were sent home. The exceptions to this rule were the governors and officials of the British government, and the merchants whose business was interfered with by the refusal of the patriots to buy the taxed goods.

But a very large number of the people of the thirteen colonies thought that, if their countrymen would only wait a while, the British parliament would surely listen to them and remove the hateful taxes. They had sworn allegiance to England. They had been protected by her armies. They would not take up arms against her till all peaceful measures had been tried. This,

they were sure, had not been done yet. Many had dear friends and relatives in the British army, and to fight England meant to fight against their own flesh and blood. Such a war should not be entered upon, they believed, without the gravest cause and without a reasonable certainty of success. Failure would mean ruin, disgrace and death. Moreover, they knew that the wisest men in England were opposed to the taxes quite as much as the colonists themselves, and they believed that the good counsel of their English friends and advocates must, in the end, prevail.

Resolve upon War.

But the indignant patriots, despairing of justice, declared that "the United States are, and of right ought to be, free and independent." They levied armies to win their freedom, and the war began. Every man who was not ready to take his musket and buckle on his sword was looked upon as an enemy, whether he wore the red coat of George III. or went about his business in the ordinary dress of a colonial citizen. Then began hard times for the Loyalists, or Tories, as they were called.

Many of them joined the British army, and, however unwillingly, turned their swords against their rebellious countrymen. Among their officers were many men who afterwards took a prominent part in Canadian history, foremost of whom was Colonel John Graves Simcoe. A few of the Royalists fled to England to await, in loneliness and exile, the return of more peaceful days. But the majority were obliged to take the still harder course of abiding quietly at home, and bearing, with what fortitude they could command, the hate and scorn of old time neighbors and friends and the estrangement of near and dear relatives. Many a time, we may be sure, Loyalist lads were called upon, in narrow alley or shady lane, to defend themselves from the attacks of sturdy young rebels, or little Tory maidens escaped with burning cheeks and scalding tears from the taunts and jeers of their former schoolmates

Bitter Strife.

Bands of men under the name of "Committees for Public Safety" were allowed to organize themselves, often under rash and unreasoning leaders. They entered the houses of those suspected of being "King's Men" and ordered them to declare to what side they belonged. If they showed the slightest sympathy with the Loyalist cause they were punished as was thought fit by the so-called "Committees for Public Safety." If he escaped imprisonment the hated Tory would sometimes be stripped, covered with a coat of tar and feathers, ridden on a rail, or insulted in whatever hateful fashion an arrogant and tyrannical mob could devise. No wonder the Loyalists, unable to bear their hard fate, sought opportunity to escape, or that the weaker among them gave up the struggle.

Harsh Treatment.

During the war the English government, sure that in the end the might of England would triumph, and that her defeated subjects would be ready to submit to whatever punishment she chose to inflict, promised the Loyalists full compensation for all the losses they had incurred. When, however, victory crowned the efforts of the Revolutionists, the mother country vainly tried to persuade the government of the United States to forgive the Loyalists and restore their property. But the people of the new Republic would have nothing to do with those who had been true to the English Crown. They themselves had risked and in many cases lost their property in the struggle for the freedom of their country. Nothing remained to them but the soil for which they had fought and bled. The bitterness of the strife had not yet passed away and given place to generous and gentle thoughts; and victorious Revolutionists declared that all those who had given aid or countenance to the English should be tried for treason, and if found guilty, hanged.

Sir Guy Carleton, who was charged with the duty of withdrawing the British troops from New York, had to wait six months before he could convey them safely away with the 12,000 Loyalists who had come within his lines for protection.

How did England now fulfil her promise of recompensing the Loyalists? She did much. Those who could go or send to England and produce documents to prove that their losses were as great as they claimed, received about a third of the amount asked for. But there were multitudes who either had no such records or had lost them in the confusion of the strife. To these and all, England offered a home. True, it was a home in the wilderness, but there at least they would be safe, and industry and economy would in due time bring them comfort and plenty.

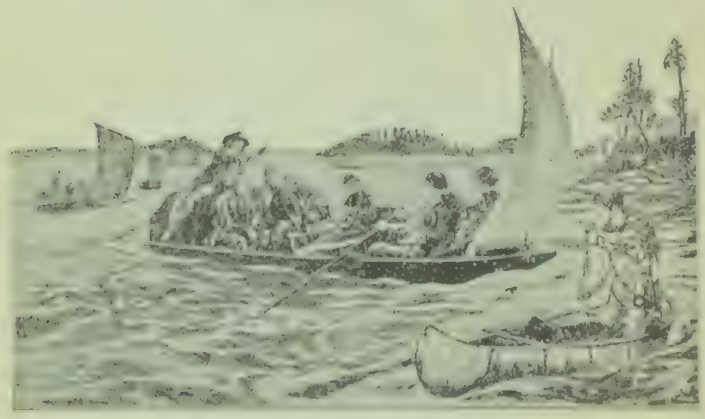
Loyalists Rewarded.

Before the war began, many of these Loyalists had passed the prime of life and were looking forward, after a youth of toil, to an old age of ease and comfort. How dreary the prospect of commencing life again in the forests of Canada must have been to them! Many a young lawyer and doctor had entered upon a career which seemed full of hope. What chance of success would he have in the wilderness? But those who had not flinched during the struggle were loyal and courageous to the end, and they gladly accepted the refuge offered them in Canada, even if they had to face a life of hardship and toil.

In the years 1783 and 1784 about 30,000 Loyalists came to Canada. Of these about 20,000 settled in the old Province of Acadia, along the St. John River, on the Atlantic Coast, or in the Annapolis Valley. Some went to Cape Breton and a smaller number to the Island of St. John (Prince Edward Island); 10,000 more found their toilsome way, by various routes, along the streams of New York, or the old military road beside Lake Champlain to the shores of Lake Ontario, or the banks of the St. Lawrence. A few remained on the border of Canada, near New England, in what are now called the Eastern Townships. They were received and treated with all kindness by Haldimand, who was then governor of Canada. This governor discouraged settlement along the frontier, as he was afraid quarrels between the Loyalists and their former countrymen would lead to renewed trouble

between England and the United States. A large number of refugees settled in the Niagara district and along the Bay of Quinte. Joseph Brant, the chief of the Mohawk Indians, who had taken the side of the English in the war, received for his people a grant of land along the Grand River, where some of their descendants may still be found.

In Ontario, the Loyalists had at first to endure great hardships. To each family were given by the government, in addition to 200 acres of land, a cow and a plough, and to each man an axe and other tools. Provisions were supplied for three years.



SETTLEMENT ALONG THE ST. LAWRENCE.

By that time it was thought there would be sufficient land cleared to grow enough to keep the farmers and their families. What must have been the dismay of the poor settlers to find that the crop of the third year, 1787, had failed utterly! Beechnuts and butternuts were gathered and carefully hoarded to eke out the scanty supply of food. Ground nuts, lamb's-quarters and all edible roots were utilized. The woods were scoured in the search for game which, fortunately, was plentiful enough to keep the settlers from starving. During the "Hungry Year" many old and weak people and little children died.

But these descendants of the Pilgrim Fathers were not men to be easily daunted. The next year's harvest was good. They worked—every man—with the utmost diligence and energy. Their clearings became larger year by year and, in spite of the ravages of bears and wolves, their stock of horses, cows and pigs increased. They had learned to obey the law which enjoins us to bear one another's burdens. Wherever the settlers lived near enough to one another, they joined together for mutual help. If a house was to be built, the neighboring settlers came from far and near and squared the logs and built the cabin. The winter's wood was cut down and hauled in by the "logging bee." The corn was husked, the cloth was thickened and the yarn was spun by workers who found that the cheerful song, the merry jest, the interchange of confidences and the giving and receiving of sympathy or advice, made even the hardest drudgery light in comparison with the long days of lonely toil.

"Logging Bee."

The founders of Upper Canada brought to their work the resourcefulness, the industry, the shrewdness, the fortitude, the perseverance and the love of order and liberty that have made their colony a great state. Early in their history they were to prove that they also inherited the bravery and loyalty of their true-hearted United Empire fathers.

CHAPTER XXII.

UPPER AND LOWER CANADA.

The fifth and sixth clauses of the Treaty of Versailles, which closed the Revolutionary War, provided that no one should be further punished in any way for their loyalty to England during the war, and that congress should endeavor to prevail upon the legislatures of the different states to restore to British subjects the property which had been taken from them. As we have seen, the United States government did not keep its promises. England, on her part, refused to surrender the western forts that were now within the United States territory. It cost the British government in Canada a great deal of trouble, expense and anxiety to maintain these posts.

Carleton Returns.

In 1786 the British government sent back Governor Carleton, who had been created Lord Dorchester, as governor general not only of Canada but also of Nova Scotia and the new province of New Brunswick. He was at the same time commander-in-chief of the British forces in America. When we remember that there were neither railroads, steamers nor telegraph lines in those days, we can form some idea of the difficulty and importance of the duties of the man who had to govern and defend such a vast territory.

The Quebec Act had been in force for but twelve years when changes were taking place that made it untenable for the government of the colony. As soon as the Loyalists from America and emigrants from Great Britain began to settle in Canada, they wanted to have a voice in making the laws of the country in which they lived. They disliked, too, the French

method of holding land. For centuries Englishmen had been accustomed to be tried by a jury of twelve men of their own station, who listened to the evidence and judged whether the accused were guilty or innocent. On the other hand, the *habitants* preferred that a magistrate or judge should settle their law suits. In many cases the French inhabitants of the valley of the St. Lawrence looked upon their English neighbors as intruders, and wanted to have nothing to do with them.

The discontented colonists of Canada made their grievances and their wishes known in England, and again British statesmen set to work to form a plan of government. It was resolved to divide Canada so that there would be two colonies, one English, the other French. Each province was to have a Legislative Assembly, elected by the people, and a Legislative Council, appointed by the king. The people of the Upper Province were to be ruled by English law. In Lower Canada, as before, the French law ruled in civil cases, but criminal cases (see p. 136) were determined by English law.

Improved Conditions.

Most of the people of Upper Canada were Protestants. To provide for their spiritual needs, one-seventh of the Crown lands in that province were set apart for the support of the Protestant clergy, and called the Clergy Reserves. The customs duties were to be fixed by England, but the money received at the custom houses of Canada was to be handed over to the Canadian governments, to be spent as they thought best. At first, the share of the Upper Province was one-eighth of the duties levied. This Act, which was called the Constitutional Act, was passed in 1791.

In 1792 General Sir John Graves Simcoe came out as governor of Upper Canada. He had fought bravely during the American Revolution on the British side. He had been elected a member of the House of Commons, and had wealth and a good position in England. He came to Canada as a true patriot,

to serve his country and improve the condition of the people of the new province. For their sakes he was willing to suffer the discomforts and inconveniences of pioneer life. His wife was a true help-meet, sharing the labors of her husband and treating all with whom she came in contact, with kindness and hospitality.



GOVERNOR SIMCOE.

The first capital of Upper Canada was Newark, a village near the falls of Niagara. Hither at harvest time, 1792, Governor Simcoe summoned his first parliament of sixteen members of the Lower House or Legislative Assembly, and nine members of the Upper House or Legislative Council. Only five members of the Lower House and two of the Upper House could find time to attend. But this little parliament went vigorously to work. They introduced English law and trial by jury. They voted money to build jails, and passed an Act for the recovery of small debts. At the next session slavery was abolished. Governor Simcoe himself laid out roads and superintended their construction. He travelled through the province and chose sites for towns. He thought that London, in the centre of a rich farming district, should be made the capital. For a time Lord Dorchester favored Kingston. At length York, now Toronto, was decided upon, although at that time the situation was, by some persons, considered too marshy.

Choosing a Capital.

Busy as he was in the improvement of the colony, Governor Simcoe gave much of his time to plans for its defence. It looked for a while as though he would again have to put himself at the head of his troops and fight his old enemies. United States settlers began to take possession of the hunting grounds of the Indians in the Ohio valley. The Indians opposed the settlers, and troops were sent to drive them away. Canadians had been trading in the valley, and British soldiers occupied forts there. Governor Simcoe asked for more soldiers to resist, if necessary, the American troops, but Lord Dorchester refused to send him any. The great war between England and France that lasted, except for a short truce, from 1793 till the battle of Waterloo, 1815, was then going on. The French Republicans were trying to get the Canadians of their own race to rebel against the English monarchy. Dorchester felt that he must be ready to defend the St. Lawrence. But the clergy and the law-abiding citizens of Lower Canada had no sympathy with those who had caused the streets of Paris to "run blood," and the danger passed away. In the west, too, the war-cloud lifted. According to a new treaty between England and the United States, the British abandoned the forts in the Ohio valley.

War Cloud Lifted.

In 1796 Simcoe returned to England. About the same time Lord Dorchester asked to be recalled, that he might spend the evening of his days in the mother country. The names of these men are held in honor for the good work done in the early times in Canada.

CHAPTER XXIII.

EARLY SETTLERS.

With the exception of the banks of the St. Lawrence, a strip along the Atlantic Coast, and the old homes of the Acadian peasants Canada from Cape Sable to the western shores of Lake Superior was at the time of the American revolution a vast extent of virgin forest. We look back with interest upon the men and women who began the work of changing this leafy wilderness into a country of comfortable homesteads and busy, prosperous towns, with here and there a great city. These were the real founders of Canada and to them she owes the greatest debt. We have already seen where the United Empire Loyalists settled and have followed their fortunes. But there were other settlers whom we must not overlook.

Toward the close of the eighteenth century and the beginning of the nineteenth, a number of Scottish landlords turned their Highland estates into sheep runs, and others sold their lands to rich Englishmen for game preserves. The poor fishermen who had for generations managed to snatch a living from the stormy sea, and the husbandmen who had cultivated in a rude way the barren soil, were thus forced to leave their homes to make room for the sheep or the deer and the grouse. After the wars, the disbanded soldiers returned to find their places in work shop or factory filled by artisans who understood how to manage the labor saving machinery then coming into use everywhere. Others felt, after a few months, that their life in field and camp had unfitted them for the old round of monotonous labor. All were glad to hear of a land which promised them a new start in life. Patriotic Irishmen fled from the old

Leaving the Old Land.

soil where the conditions of life were hard and where they considered themselves oppressed by Saxon rule. In after years the very soil itself seemed to turn against the people and refused to yield the crops of potatoes that had supplied their simple wants. Thousands then sought relief from famine and pestilence in America.

Hard-working, frugal farm laborers from the Lowlands and from England listened to reports of the rich soil of Canada and crossed the ocean, making the districts where they settled noted for beauty and fertility; and bands of sturdy Germans left the fatherland to try their fortune in the new English colonies.

These, and such as these, formed the pioneers of British North America. The path to comfort was a hard one in those days. They and their families—crowded on board small sailing vessels, often with insufficient food and scanty covering—lay at the mercy of wind and wave for many long weeks. Their dreary voyage over, they were landed with their little store of worldly goods on the shores of some desolate harbor. As they stood gazing sadly at the vanishing sails of the vessel which bore back their messages to the loved ones left behind, they formed, we may well believe, a forlorn-looking group. Yet there were courage, resolution, independence, yes, and hope too, in their aching hearts as they turned from the sea to face their new life.

Hardships of the Pioneers.

With few tools but the unaccustomed axe, the men set to work to raise a temporary shelter. Beds were made of the fragrant spruce, and roaring fires of the dead boughs of some lightning-blasted pine. With light and warmth and rest, cheerfulness returned. The men of the party soon separated to choose a place to build a home. They then found their way to the nearest town, where they spent the few pounds left from their passage money, in buying the barest necessaries of life and securing seed for the spring sowing.

Here and there along the shore of sea or lake, or on the river bank, rose the little cabins of the immigrants. The houses were built of logs, rudely squared. The roofs were made of poles covered with sods. The cracks were closed with moss. A rude chimney and a large fireplace filled one end of the room. A few stools, a bedstead, a table and a dresser to hold the dishes of common crockery ware, were made as time served. If there were children, a long "settle" was made to serve as a seat in the day, and a bed at night. The house usually had but one room,



A SETTLER'S CABIN.

with a loft used as a sleeping place for a stranger or grown up son or daughter. The floor was made of rough boards, which constant scrubbing with sand made smooth and white. The one luxury of the settler was plenty of fuel. The roaring fire in the great fireplace gave to these humble dwellings a look of cheerfulness and comfort which is often lacking in much finer houses.

These were the days of flint, steel and tinder box. To light a fire was a work of time and trouble, and once kindled it was seldom allowed to go out. In the fireplace hung the "crane," with its load of pots, kettle and bake pan. The oatcakes were browned and sometimes the meat roasted before the fire.

A shelter provided, the axe must be plied continually to make

a clearing before spring. The wife prepared the simple, and sometimes scanty, meals, and knit the warm mittens and socks so much needed in the keen air of the Canadian winter. As she worked she rocked with her foot the rude cradle that held her little one, her only comfort in the long, lonely days of her forest home.

When at last the snow had disappeared, and the woods put on the varying tints of spring, when bud and blossom succeeded each other with a swiftness unknown in the old land, the hoe and the rake took the place of the axe in the settler's hand. Little patches of wheat, oats, or barley, potatoes and Indian corn, were hoed into the blackened earth among the stumps, for these pioneer farmers had set the fire to finish the work the axe had begun. How anxiously the ground was watched till the green plants appeared! How carefully they were tended! If the husband had the good fortune to get work on the government road, or in the shipyard at the mouth of the river, then, in addition to her own housework, the good wife hoed and weeded the growing crop.

The Welcome Spring-Time.

But oftener the axe was at work again as soon as seed-time was over. In some places the provider left his forest home, and, hiring a share of a boat, went out to sea to catch fish for the winter's supply of food. If he had a musket he could, after harvest, add to his store some venison or other game. But every day spent from clearing his farm was grudged by the pioneer. He came to look upon the forest as an enemy, and beneath his sturdy stroke fell many a noble tree that, if spared, would have been an ornament to the farm for generations to come.

After a few years, if all went well, the pioneer could begin to stock his farm. A pig or two, some sheep, a few fowls, a cow and a pair of oxen, would not only furnish food and clothing, but assist him in his labor. A barn was built in which to shelter the animals and store their food.

By this time the house rings with the merry voices of children, and a hundred small tasks are performed by their active hands. Mother must find material to make their little garments, as well as to replace her own and her husband's worn out clothing. She cards and spins the wool which has been shorn from the gentle sheep. It is then sent to a weaver, who has brought his loom and his trade with him across the ocean. From the coarse but warm cloth she fashions garments for the household. A very busy and often a very weary woman is she, but patient and withal contented.



(*From an old print.*)

CANADIAN COSTUMES OF THE TIME.

Her husband, too, must learn in his forest home many a new trade. There are shoes to be made for the growing children. The little ones can remain by the fireside, but John and Mary are big enough to look after the fire, to cut the firewood or to carry the water for mother from the too distant spring. They must have shoes. A shoemaker's bench fills a corner by the fireside and coarse but serviceable shoes are fashioned in stormy days. The rough harness must be repaired and simple furniture and strong farming implements made by the same pair of hands. Little leisure, indeed, has the pioneer for rest.

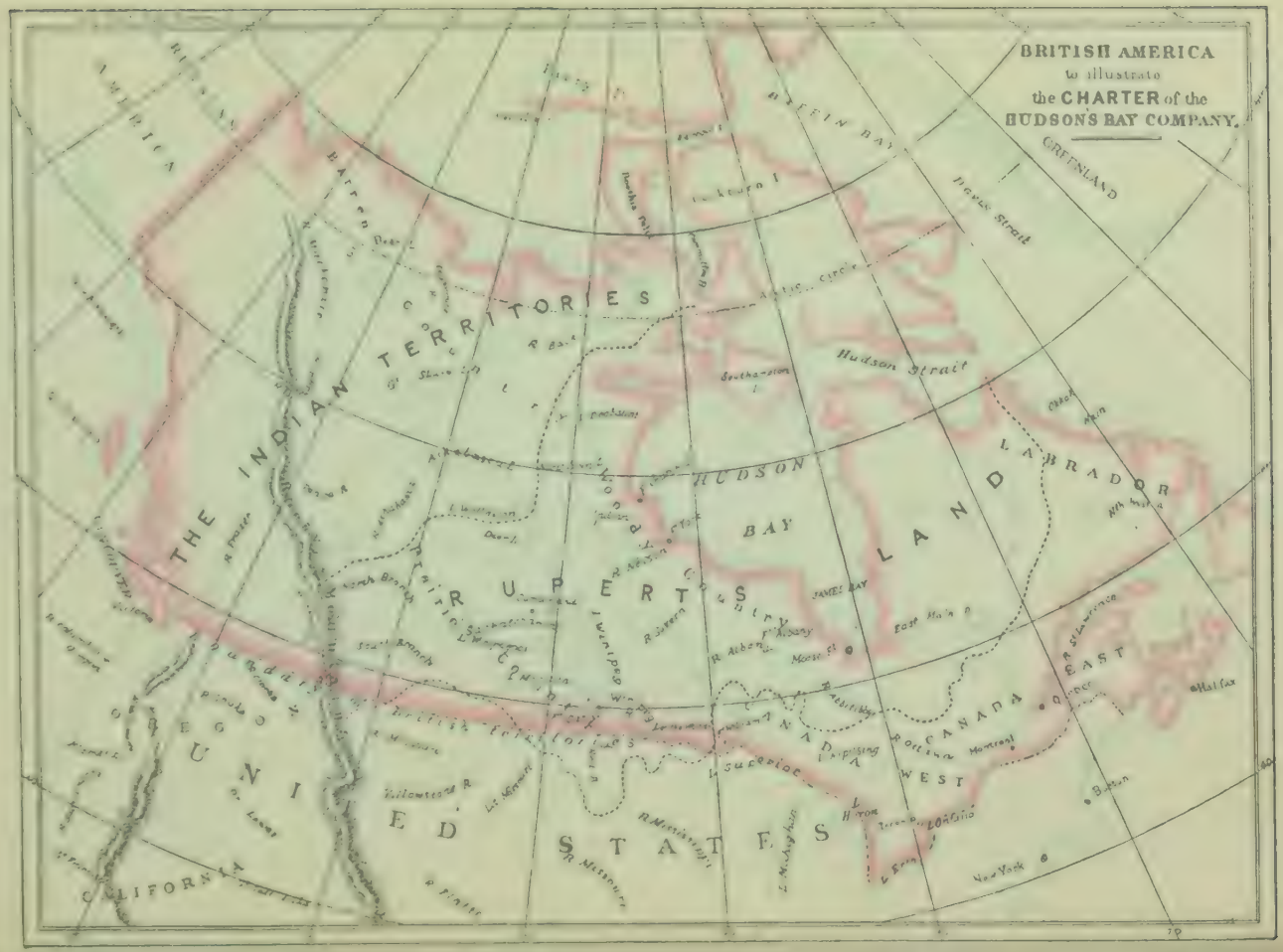
And yet in many of these humble homes, time is always found to read the well worn Bible and to offer prayer and thanksgiving

to the God who has sent them seed-time and harvest, who has comforted them in sorrow and watched over them in sickness.

As the settler works in the dim woods or walks home under the starlit sky, his heart goes out in reverent worship to Him who is the Maker and Ruler of all things. His wife as she turns her wheel or goes about her household duties, beguiles the time by singing psalms or paraphrases, or perchance the sweet words of Wesley's hymns learned in the home of her girlhood. The children are early taught to be obedient to their parents and reverent to their Maker. Now and again the minister finds his way to the dwelling of these good people, baptizes the little ones and cheers the hearts of the elders with prayer and counsel. A traveller, welcome as an angel, and entertained as one, arrives from a distant settlement and brings news from the outside world. When sickness or misfortune comes, the nearest neighbors are quick to bring help and sympathy. If the good man is ill, his harvest will be gathered, his crop sown or his woodpile replenished according to the season. Should the housewife be laid aside, willing hands provide for the wants of the little ones and minister to the comfort of their elders; for in the early pioneer life each settlement formed a little world of its own, where love and mutual confidence reigned.

Their Little World.

By the time the father's hair is streaked with grey and his wife's figure bowed with age, the broad, well-tilled fields have pushed the forest back to the end of the farm; good barns have been built and a new and larger house has taken the place of the little log cabin. The children have grown up and are ready to carry on the work which the old people must soon lay down. Canada owes much to the labors of these early settlers, but perhaps more to the example of their strong, simple lives. They planted the seed of a noble nation. It is our part in these later days to see that the thorns do not spring up and choke the good seed.


BRITISH AMERICA
to illustrate
the CHARTER of the
HUDSON'S BAY COMPANY.
BAFFIN BAY
GREENLAND
Davis Strait
Hudson Strait
THE INDIAN TERRITORIES
HUDSON BAY
LABRADOR
NEW BRITAIN
CANADA EAST
CANADA WEST
UNITED STATES
CALIFORNIA
Halifax
Boston
New York

CHAPTER XXIV.

THE RULE OF THE FUR COMPANIES.

Nearly three hundred years ago, in 1610, a British navigator, Henry Hudson, while searching for a north-west passage between the Atlantic and the Pacific, discovered the great bay that still bears his name. Mutinous sailors put their commander, and all who were faithful to him, on board a little boat and set them adrift, to perish, doubtless, among the icebergs of that desolate coast. For nearly sixty years explorers came at intervals and examined the shores of that bay. At length in 1667 one more enterprising than the others, established a trading station on the south shore of James Bay. This pioneer of the fur-trade was not to profit long by his venture, for in 1670 King Charles II. granted to his cousin, Prince Rupert, and a company of gentlemen, the rule of all the lands within the entrance to Hudson Bay, together with a monopoly of trade in those regions. This territory, the extent and value of which no one in those days imagined, was at first called Rupert's Land.

Rupert's Land.

The Hudson's Bay Company built forts at the mouths of the principal rivers flowing into the bay. York, Churchill, Severn, Albany, Moose and Eastmain were the names of the trading stations around the shore in 1783.

Each fort was put in charge of a governor and occupied by a small band of hardy fellows, generally from the Orkney Islands. Once a year in September a ship came out with supplies and carried away the last year's harvest of furs. Then the people of the fort laid in a supply of game and gathered fuel for the long, cold winter. Often, too, during the winter, parties were sent out in search of fresh game. Terrible stories are told of the hardships suffered by some of these poor fellows, who found

themselves adrift on an iceberg or lost in a trackless wilderness of snow. These Hudson's Bay men have left behind them a good record for sobriety, honesty and industry. Some of them were men of more than ordinary intelligence and observation, as shown by the accounts they have written of their life in Rupert's Land.

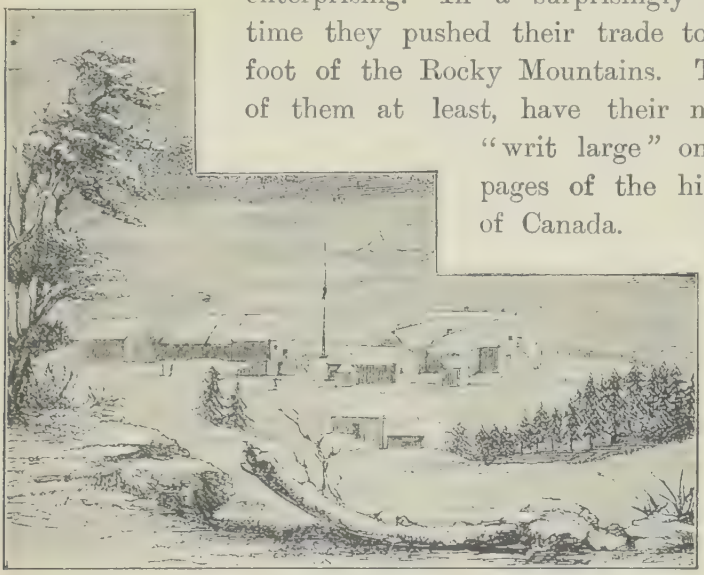
When spring came the Indians brought their loads of furs to the forts, and so far as can be learned they were treated with kindness and justice. The value of the goods sold and furs bought was reckoned by beavers' skins. If, as happened now and again, a governor was tyrannical and unjust, the Indians avoided his fort, and his returns to the Company were small in comparison with those of more humane and upright officials.

Bartering Furs.

For almost a century the Company was satisfied to occupy the border of their immense domain. The men planted vegetables for their own use, but they did not think of exploring or opening up the land. It was for them merely a great hunting ground, which would be ruined if it should become the home of civilized man. In 1686 and again in 1697 the Hudson's Bay forts were seized by war parties from Canada. In 1713 the territory was secured to the English by the treaty of Utrecht. Towards the middle of the 18th century the Vérendryes explored the North-west, built trading posts and began a trade with the Indians. In this way the business of the Company was disturbed and their profits reduced. The people at home blamed the agents of the Company for allowing the French to occupy territories that should have been held for England, and as a result greater exertions were made by the English to establish trading stations along the lakes and rivers in the present province of Manitoba and the territories.

In 1783 the French, who were helping the United States in the War of Independence, seized forts York and Churchill, but they were soon restored. About the same time the North-west

Company was founded in Montreal, to trade in the west for furs. This company employed French-Canadians as boatmen and traders, but the officers, like most of those employed by the old company, were generally Scotchmen. They were energetic and enterprising. In a surprisingly short time they pushed their trade to the foot of the Rocky Mountains. Three of them at least, have their names "writ large" on the pages of the history of Canada.



FORT YORK—H. B. CO'S TRADING POST.

In 1789 Alexander McKenzie, one of the partners of the company, left Fort Chipewyan, on Lake Athabasca, and explored the river, which he named McKenzie River, to the Arctic Ocean. Three years later, in 1792, he found his way across the mountains to the shores of British Columbia. In 1808 Simon Fraser, who had risen in ten years from the position of apprentice to that of partner in the company's service, performed the almost incredible feat of following the Fraser River from its source to its mouth.

In 1811 David Thompson explored the Columbia River. He had previously entered British Columbia by three different passes of the Rocky Mountains, established a trading station at Kamloops, and travelled through a great part of what is known as the Kootenay country.

In the meantime the rivalry of the Hudson's Bay and Northwest companies had been growing keener. Each strove to outbid the other and to obtain the best sites for trading posts. Quarrels were frequent, not only between the servants, but between the governors themselves. This competition of the Companies became ruinous, and they united under the old name of Hudson's Bay Company. Their right to the territory was bought, as we shall see, by the Dominion government in 1870, but the trading company, though without any monopoly, still exists.

It was during this period of rivalry that the first British settlements were made in Manitoba. In a previous chapter allusion has been made to the harsh treatment of the Scottish Crofters and other tenants by their landlords. The deplorable state of his poor countrymen awoke the pity of Lord Selkirk—Baron Daer. He determined to help them to leave the barren acres of the Highlands and make homes for themselves on the fertile lands of British North America. He had heard of immense, well watered territories belonging to the Hudson's Bay Company, which afforded pasture to great herds of buffalo, but which as yet had no human tenant save wandering tribes of wild Indians and a few half breed traders almost as wild. In other parts of the British colonies, too, land might be had almost for the asking.

The Scotch Crofters.

He first tried to make a settlement at Sault Ste. Marie, but found that he could not obtain a grant of the district selected. Then he settled one hundred and eleven emigrants at Baldoon, near Lake St. Clair. The place was so marshy and unhealthy that it had to be abandoned.

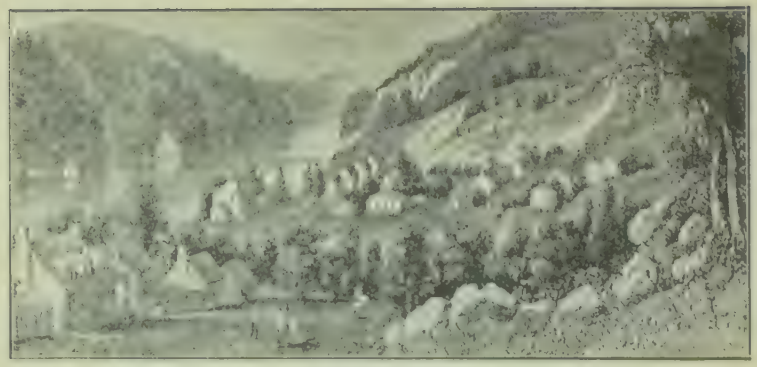
His next venture was more successful. He landed eight hundred people on the shores of Prince Edward Island. The settlements made by these Highlanders grew steadily, if not rapidly, and some of their descendants have won honorable places both in Canada and the United States.

Lord Selkirk visited Montreal and learned from members of the North-west Company the possibilities of the western trade. On his return to Great Britain he bought a large number of shares in the Hudson's Bay Company, and was made a director. Then he had influence enough to get a grant of 160,000 square miles of land on the Red River, to be used as a Highland settlement.

Fort Douglas, near the site of the present city of Winnipeg, was the earliest British settlement in Manitoba. Later in the season another fort was built at Pembina and named Fort Daer. Food was scarce, and the buffalo were more plentiful here than at Fort Douglas. Almost every year, during Lord Selkirk's life, new emigrants arrived. At first some left the Red River and settled again in Upper Canada, but at last the Selkirk settlers, in spite of hardships, were able to make homes for themselves on the fertile soil of the prairie.

The Earl of Selkirk left Canada in 1819 and soon after that he died. Like all strong-natured men he had his faults, and enemies to revile, as well as friends to praise him. But whatever his faults and failings, Canadians of Scottish descent will always hold dear the memory of the man who pitied the distress of their ancestors and led them across the ocean to become the pioneers of a new nation.





QUEENSTON IN 1812.

CHAPTER XXV.

THE WAR OF 1812.

In the summer of 1812 the work of settlement and improvement in Canada was rudely interrupted. During the early years of the nineteenth century, Napoleon, Emperor of France, was winning those victories which have made his name so famous and so terrible. In almost every country of Europe wasted fields and ruined cities marked the path of his conquering armies. Great Britain, indeed, had not suffered from invasion, but every year saw her sons, in increasing numbers, leaving their native shores to fight against the despot on land or sea. The workmen of the Continent were forced to leave the productive labor of their looms, their forges and their farms to engage in the unprofitable and destructive trade of war. English industry was not much disturbed, and English merchants were quick to take advantage of the necessities of friends and foes and sell their wares to all nations. Even the soldiers of the French army were, it is said, clad in English cloth. In 1806 Napoleon resolved to humble his indomitable foe by destroying her commerce. He issued the Berlin Decrees, which forbade any

Clad in English Cloth.

merchant ship to obtain a cargo in a British port. England retaliated by Orders-in-Council forbidding any ship to trade with France or her allies. For many years the United States had sent grain and lumber, cotton and tobacco to the Continent and to England. Now her ships could not safely enter any European port, and her trade was ruined. In those days sailors in a British port were often seized by a band of men called a press gang, carried on board a man-of-war and forced to serve there. These unwilling recruits sometimes deserted and England claimed the right to search for them in American vessels. As British and United States sailors were of the same race and spoke the same language, it was hard to distinguish between them, and the Americans declared that men who had never served under the Union Jack were seized by the British officers. To add to the ill-feeling between the kindred nations, it was discovered that a Canadian governor, the indiscreet Sir James Craig, had sent a Captain Henry to Boston to find out if the New England states might be induced to leave the Union and join Canada. It was believed that England had neither soldiers nor sailors to spare for the defence of Canada, and a few noisy, disloyal settlers persuaded the American authorities that the colony was ready to throw in her lot with the United States. Yet the New England people opposed the war as being unjust and unwise, and when it was declared in 1812, the flags of Boston hung at half mast.

War Deemed Unjust.

One cannot wonder that the hearts of the war party in the States beat high with hope. The population of the United States outnumbered that of Canada by more than twenty-six to one. The frontier to be protected was seventeen hundred miles long, and, in most places, without natural defences. There were few regular soldiers in the colony, and the farmers and backwoodsmen of Canada had no experience in warfare. But the race is not always to the swift nor the battle to the strong, and

the young American nation was soon to learn, to its cost, how soon and how thoroughly the lessons of war are learned by men who are fighting for their homes.

Three large armies prepared to invade Canada. Hull, the governor of Michigan, was to cross from Detroit and take the western peninsula. Van Rensselaer held his force in readiness to cross the Niagara river and capture the older settlements and towns of Upper Canada, while Dearborn at Albany watched a favorable opportunity of marching north and seizing Montreal. No attempt was made, thanks to the dislike of the New Englanders for the war, to attack Nova Scotia or New Brunswick.



TECUMSEH.

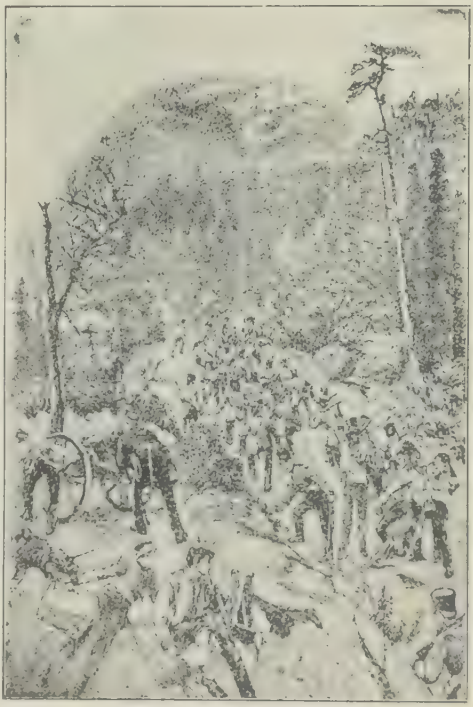
The Canadians were commanded by Brock, a brave, resolute and patriotic general. He had lived ten years in Canada and was dearly loved by the militia. The Indians who joined the British ranks in considerable numbers were led by Tecumseh, a Shawnee chief. In his too short career this heroic leader showed himself not only brave but wise and humane.

The first blow was struck in the west at Michilimackinac, which was taken by a British officer, Captain Roberts. The possession of this fort carried with it the control of Lake Michigan and influence among the Indian tribes of the west. Hull crossed into Canadian territory, but being worsted by the Canadians in two skirmishes, he withdrew and took shelter with two thousand five hundred men within the walls of Detroit. Here he was besieged on August 16th by Brock and his Indian ally, Tecumseh, with a force of about half the number of the

Americans. With scarcely a show of resistance, Hull surrendered his army and stores and abandoned the whole State of Michigan to Canada.

Two months later, October 12, 1812, Van Rensselaer, with fifteen hundred men, rowed across the Niagara River five miles below the falls. He defeated the small force stationed there and won his way to a strong position on the top of a high plateau called Queenston Heights. Almost immediately, Brock, who had heard the firing at Fort George, rode up. Taking command of the troops and sending orders to General Sheaffe to bring up reinforcements, he charged straight up the hill. Glancing over the field he waved his sword and shouted "Push on, brave York volunteers!" The command had scarcely been given when he fell, shot through the breast. His gallant aide-de-camp, McDonnell, attempted to obey the command of his fallen leader, but he, too, was killed, and the brave little band was forced to take shelter. About noon, General Sheaffe, now commander-in-chief, arrived with all the soldiers he could muster -his whole force numbering nearly a thousand men. Filled with grief and anger at the loss of their chief, the Canadians won their way foot by foot to the top of the

Queenston Heights.



CLIMBING THE HEIGHTS.

heights. In the shock that followed, the Americans were driven back to the edge of the river. Here the eleven hundred survivors surrendered, but the victory was dearly bought by the lives of the heroic Brock and his brave aide-de-camp.

These Canadian victories of 1812 offset certain mortifying disasters to English ships during the same war. It should not be forgotten, however, that for nearly twenty years every British vessel had been in almost constant service and that ships and sailors were alike battle-worn, while the United States vessels were new and manned with strong fresh crews.

In the winter of 1812-1813, Canadians from both provinces hastened to join the ranks, and in March the 104th Regiment from Fredericton and a party of sailors from Halifax went on snow-shoes to the aid of their fellow-colonists. In February a detachment of United States soldiers crossed the St. Lawrence, attacked Brockville and carried off the villagers as prisoners of war. In reprisal, Col. McDonnell, who was stationed at Prescott, took his men out as if for their usual drill on the ice, for the river between Canada and the United States was frozen over at the time. In their evolutions they moved nearer and nearer to the fortified town of Ogdensburg on the American side. With a bold and unlooked-for rush, they carried the post and put the garrison to flight. McDonnell captured eleven cannon with a large quantity of military stores and burnt four ships that lay in the harbor.

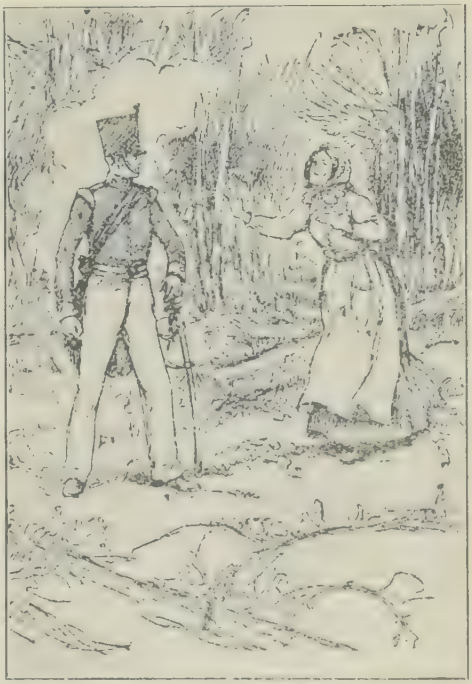
A Clever Manoeuvre.

With the opening of spring an American army, assisted by the fleet on Lake Ontario, captured York (now Toronto), the capital of Upper Canada, destroyed its public buildings and carried off the library. Turning to the Niagara frontier, the Americans forced Vincent to abandon Fort George and to retreat to Beaver Dams, twelve miles away. Finding the enemy close upon him, the Canadian general took up a strong position on Burlington Heights. The Americans halted at Stoney Creek.

Here they were surprised by Col. Harvey, sent by Vincent to reconnoitre their position. Generals Winder and Chandler, with a hundred men, were captured and the enemy put to flight. Vincent followed the retreating army and sent Lieut. Fitz-Gibbon with a small force to re-occupy Beaver Dams. A few miles away General de Haren was posted with two hundred men. An American force of five hundred troops under Col. Boerstler was sent to dislodge Fitz-Gibbon.

Laura Secord.

Near Queenston, a wounded militiaman named James Secord was being nursed back to health by his devoted wife. The helpless soldier learned of the American plans and his wife resolved to frustrate them. The summer sky was scarcely tinged with the first crimson streak of sunrise, when Laura Secord, her milk-pail on her arm, followed her cow past the American sentry into the woods. Once out of sight of the Americans, she hurried on as swiftly as possible through the tangled forest and before nightfall reached the Mohawk sentry, posted twenty miles away. We may imagine how her heart beat at every sound that broke the stillness of the sultry wood and how often she fancied she saw the form of some wild beast or the more dreaded figure of a United States soldier. But she pushed on till her brave



WARNING FITZ-GIBBON.

work was done. Fitz Gibbon was forewarned, and he so scattered his handful of soldiers and Indians among the woods that when they attacked Boerstler their wild shouts led him to believe that he was surrounded by a formidable force, and he surrendered before de Haren and his men could come up to act as a guard to the prisoners. Many men owed their lives that day to Laura Secord, and many others were saved by her heroic deed, for the foiled Americans made no further attempt that year against the Niagara frontier.

On Lake Ontario Sir James Yeo, in command of six ships, met Commodore Chauncey with fourteen, and forced him to retire under the guns of Fort Niagara. On Lake Erie the fortunes of war went against Canada. There the American commodore (Perry) had ten ships, and the British captain (Barclay) but six. In a fierce engagement every one of Barclay's ships was taken or destroyed. This was a great blow to Canada, as it left Proctor's army in Michigan without supplies. That general felt himself forced to abandon Detroit and he determined to retreat and join Vincent's army at Burlington Heights. His force of thirteen or fourteen hundred men—of whom five hundred were Indians, under Tecumseh—was followed by General Harrison with a fine army of three thousand men. At

Disgracefully Beaten.

Moraviantown, on the Thames, the Canadians came to a stand. They neglected to fortify their position and were soon disgracefully beaten. The Indians stood their ground, and their heroic leader, Tecumseh, was slain. His fate must have been envied by his superior officer Proctor, who was dismissed in disgrace. While these disasters befell the fleet and army in the west, Canadian ships drove the United States flag from Lake Champlain.

In the autumn of 1813 two large armies attempted the capture of Montreal. A force of 3,500 under General Wade Hampton advanced from Lake Champlain by way of the Chateauguay River toward the head of Montreal Island. The

other and larger army of 8,000 commanded by General Wilkinson, was to leave Sackett's Harbor, come down the St. Lawrence and join Hampton at Lachine. In October a small body of troops consisting of three hundred and fifty men under a French-Canadian officer, Colonel de Salabery, intercepted Hampton's army at a ford of the Chateauguay and put it to rout. General Wilkinson left Sackett's Harbor on the 3rd of November. Part of his army marched along the St. Lawrence, while the rest of his troops with the stores floated down the river in three hundred bateaux guarded by gunboats. They were followed by about eight hundred Canadian militia and regulars under Morrison and Harvey. Annoyed beyond endurance by the skirmishing attacks of this little band, Wilkinson ordered his army to halt and disperse them. Some

Chrysler's Farm.

miles above Cornwall, the Canadians took up a position in an open field on Chrysler's farm. Instead of being brushed away they defeated the Americans and forced them to take refuge in their boats. Wilkinson hastened down the St. Lawrence to Regis, where he heard of the defeat of Hampton. He then retired into winter quarters.

More disgraceful than these humiliating defeats was the act of the American General McLure, who, at half an hour's warning, burned the town of Newark and turned women and children, the aged and the sick, out of their homes into the bitter cold of a December night. In revenge for this outrage the incensed Canadians crossed the frontier, took Niagara and burned Lewiston, Buffalo and Black Rock.

The British ship "Shannon"--Captain Broke—challenged the American frigate Chesapeake, riding at anchor in Boston harbor on June 1, 1813. The challenge was accepted, and in a quarter of an hour after the first gun was fired the Union Jack floated at the masthead of the Chesapeake, whose gallant captain and seventy of her crew were killed.

At the close of the last campaign General Wilkinson had retired sick and dispirited across the frontier. In March, 1814, he recrossed it with five thousand men and attacked the fort of La Colle Mill. This outpost was defended by Captain Handcock with a garrison of five hundred men. It was built of stone, and the American general tried to batter down the walls with his cannon, but his gunners were picked off by sharpshooters. Before the day was over Wilkinson drew off his army and soon after resigned his command.

In Upper Canada a force from Kingston captured Oswego. The Americans, in their turn, seized Fort Erie and defeated General Riall, who had rashly attacked an army outnumbering his own, three to one, at Chippewa. General Drummond arrived with reinforcements, and on the 26th of July the Americans and Canadians met at Lundy's Lane, a road beside Niagara Falls. At five o'clock in the afternoon the battle began. All through the long summer evening it raged. The road was heaped with dead and dying, and the setting sun saw men grappling in a hand to hand struggle. The gentle moon looked down on the same horrible scene, and it was not till midnight that the carnage ceased. The Americans abandoned the field, fell back upon Chippewa, and next day retreated to Fort Erie. This was the last as well as the most bloody battle on Canadian soil. In this campaign Sir John Sherbrooke, Governor of Nova Scotia, captured the towns of Eastport, Castine, and Bangor in Maine.

At this time Napoleon was imprisoned in Elba, and England sent ships and troops across the ocean to end the war in America. Sir George Prevost with a fine army and a small fleet attacked the enemy at Plattsburg on Lake Champlain. His ships were destroyed and he was defeated. To the surprise and indignation of his officers he retreated. More than once before, the timidity or irresolution of the governor had lengthened out the war. He was summoned to England to answer for his mistake, but did not live to undergo his trial.

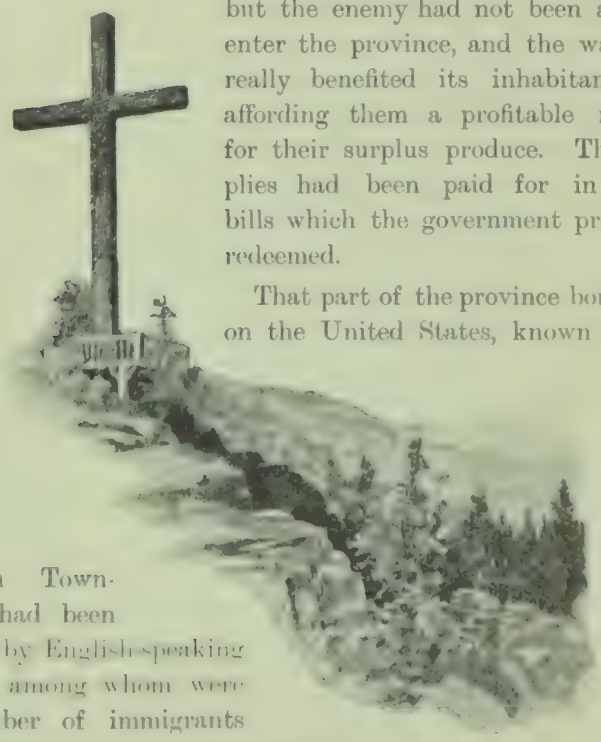
A British fleet sailed into Chesapeake Bay, and an army under General Ross marched to Washington and destroyed the Capitol and other public buildings, an act unworthy of a great nation. The war should have ended here, for the Treaty of Ghent was signed on December 24th, 1814. But the Atlantic cable was not then laid, and before a letter could reach the United States a terrible battle was fought at New Orleans in January, 1815, in which the British forces were defeated. By the terms of the treaty all conquests were mutually restored. What were the results of the war?

The United States had attacked an unoffending, and as she thought, a defenceless neighbor. She had spent millions of money, wasted the lives of many soldiers, and her trade had been ruined. She had gained neither glory nor lands. Canada had lost much, too, in those years when armies trod over her fields and her men exchanged the reaping-hook for the sword, and the axe for the musket. She could ill spare from her sparse population the brave hearts and wise heads that had been sacrificed in the war. But its fruits were not all evil. The colonists had learned to depend upon themselves. The land her sons had defended became doubly dear to them. Men of scattered settlements, distant towns and widely separated provinces, learned by the camp-fire and in the face of the enemy, to look upon one another as brothers. Self-reliance, patriotism and unity—these were some of the lessons in citizenship that Canadians began to learn under the stern teaching of war.

While the settlers in Upper Canada were hard at work clearing land, making roads and doing such other pioneer work as was necessary, the people of the older provinces were becoming prosperous and rapidly increasing in numbers.

At the close of the war of 1812 the Canadian French had been more than half a century under British rule. Though England during a great part of that time had been at war, the *habitants* in the valley of the St. Lawrence were left free to

sow their seed and reap their harvests, undisturbed by the roll of drum or roar of cannon. There had been, as we have seen, a short and almost harmless invasion during the American Revolution. In the recent war, French-Canadians had distinguished themselves in defence of their homes, but the enemy had not been able to enter the province, and the war had really benefited its inhabitants by affording them a profitable market for their surplus produce. The supplies had been paid for in army bills which the government promptly redeemed.



That part of the province bordering on the United States, known as the Eastern Townships, had been settled by English-speaking people, among whom were a number of immigrants from the United States. They, like their fellow settlers in Upper Canada, were still engaged in turning the virgin forest into fertile farms. There were no great cities in the province. Montreal and Quebec were as yet but small towns, and Three Rivers was still smaller. At many of the seigneuries there were villages, though the fortifications so necessary when Indian raids were common must, ere this, have fallen into decay. Railroads and telegraph lines did not

exist, and even the steamboat seldom awoke an echo in the rocks and forests that bordered the Lower St. Lawrence. Apart from this, the tourist who visits Quebec to-day, sees very much the same sights as did the immigrants who came to Canada in the summer of 1816. The same noble river flows peacefully between its rocky shores, old almost as time itself. Stretching away on either side are still the narrow farms with their white-washed farmhouses. At short intervals arise the churches whose commanding sites show how great a part they play in the life of the community. In language, in appearance and in manner the *habitant* of the valley of the St Lawrence has altered little, even in three generations. In one respect he has changed. In the early years of the nineteenth century, not one man in ten could sign his own name. Now, perhaps, there is not one in ten who cannot read and write fairly well. Then most of the British inhabitants of Lower Canada were found in the cities. They carried on the commerce of the country and founded its manufactures. The greater number of both executive and legislative councils, many of the judges and nearly all of the officials, were men of British birth and descent; while the French-Canadians, who now take their full share in all the professions and business enterprises, formed a large majority of the House of Assembly.

CHAPTER XXVI.

RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT.

The war was scarcely over, when in every one of the British North American colonies the people entered upon another struggle which lasted for more than thirty years, — the struggle for Responsible Government. Long ago our forefathers chose the wisest and strongest man to rule over them and they called him a king. So long as kings ruled for the good of the people all went well, but sometimes they served only their own wills, and sought only their own glory. Then little by little the people won back the power of ruling till now, in England, in Canada, and in most Christian countries, the laws of the state are made by parliaments or assemblies elected by the people and responsible to the people. **This is called Responsible Government.**

Popular Rule.

In Canada at the present time, the members of the Legislative Assembly in each province, and the members of the House of Commons in the Dominion Parliament, are all elected by the people. When the time comes for an election there is generally some important public question to be decided, such as Education, the Liquor Traffic, Free Trade or Protection. Then there is always the question of Reform. Some people want to leave things as they are. Others desire to make improvements. Hence the two parties Conservatives and Reformers. In almost every electoral district each party nominates one or more candidates. These candidates present their views on the questions at issue, and on election day he with whom most of the electors agree is chosen member. The ablest man in the country on either side is selected by his party as leader. The leader who after the election is over is found to have the most

followers, is asked by the Governor to select his ministers, or the men who are to direct the various departments of public business such as Law, Finance, Public Works, Agriculture, Education, etc. The men thus selected constitute the Cabinet or Ministry, and the leader is called the Premier, or Prime Minister. Before he enters upon his duties, each Cabinet Minister must go back to his constituents for re-election, so that there shall be no doubt that the people are satisfied with the Premier's choice. The meetings of the Cabinet are secret and if a member disagrees seriously with his colleagues he resigns his office.

Legislative Procedure.

When the House meets, the Premier and his followers take one side of the Legislative Chamber, while the minority, now called the Opposition, takes the other. One of the principal duties of the Opposition is to criticize the conduct of the Government, and as no men are always wise, an able opposition is a good thing for a country. The House is usually elected for a term of years, but if at any time the Premier cannot command the support of a majority of the legislature he resigns. The Governor then calls upon some other member of the Cabinet or upon the leader of the Opposition to form a Government. If no one is willing to undertake the task, the Governor dissolves the House. There is then a new election, and the votes of the people decide what they wish the Government to do. In the meantime the old ministers retain their offices. If the verdict of the country is against them, they resign and a new government is formed. From this, it will be seen that the Ministry, Cabinet, Executive, or Government (for the body which carries on the business of the country is known by all these names) is responsible to the Legislative Assembly and the Legislative Assembly is responsible to the people. No law can remain in force unless the people desire it, nor can money be spent except in such sums and for such purposes as the people approve. The

Governor, as the head of the Executive, is guided by the advice of his Cabinet, and if he does wrong, his ministers and not he must bear the blame.

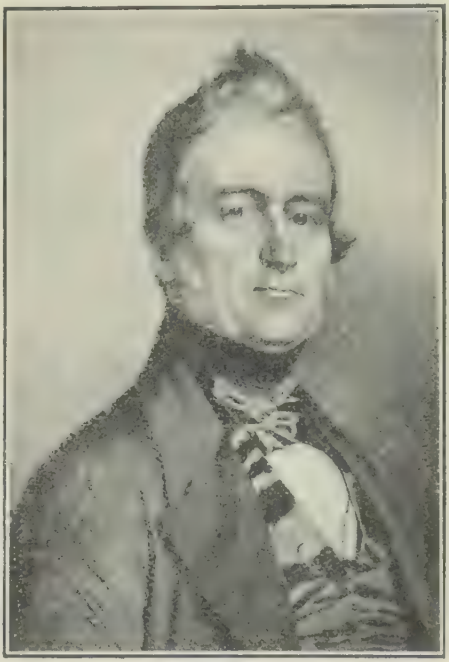
This is, in brief outline, our present system of responsible government. In the early times it was very different. Then the Ministers of State and the Legislative Councils were chosen by the Governors and they could hold their places of power in spite of the people. The members of the Legislative Assemblies were, it is true, elected by the people, but the real rulers of the country were, in the Legislative Councils, above popular control. Perhaps this irresponsible government was the best in the very early times in this country, but the times changed and a new order was demanded.

We have seen how, in Governor Carleton's time, the English of Lower Canada, who were a small minority of the population, were inclined to tyrannize over their fellow colonists of French origin. It is not surprising, therefore, that when Lower Canada obtained in 1791 the power of electing a Legislative Assembly, the representatives, who were mostly French, resolved to wrest the power from Ministers of State appointed by the Crown and usually chosen from the English minority. The struggle had begun before the war and it was resumed still more vigorously when the war was over.

The Governors.

The governors of Canada — generally distinguished soldiers — were perhaps naturally inclined to look upon the colonists as unreasonable agitators, who could not or would not understand that many of their demands were in opposition to the Constitutional Act of 1791, by which the colony was governed and under which they enjoyed a degree of freedom unknown during the French *régime*. The constant associates of the governor and those to whom he looked for information concerning the colony, were officials whose places and salaries would be risked if there were any change in the method of government. On the other hand, the

leaders of the Assembly often spoke of the representative of the king in terms so disrespectful that it was hard for even the most amiable of governors to be upon such friendly terms with them that he could bring himself to look upon the affairs of the colony from their standpoint. It must never be forgotten, however, that whatever mistakes they may have made, no shadow of suspicion rests upon the honor and integrity of any one of the governors of that stormy period. The behavior of the official class to all outside their own immediate circle, was haughty and exclusive and added not a little to the bitterness of the strife which was to end at last in bloodshed.



PAPINEAU.

The leader of the popular party was Louis Joseph Papineau. When he was elected Speaker of the House of Assembly in 1816, he was young, handsome and eloquent. His compatriots adored him, and for twenty years he was able to sway them according to his will.

The conduct and position of the judges afforded the first grounds of complaint. Nearly all of them held political offices, and many were members both of the Executive and Legislative Councils. Under such circumstances it must have been very hard for the most upright of men to do justice to political friends and foes alike, and some of them, it is to be feared, did not wish to decide righteously. The reform so loudly demanded in this matter has been brought about, and now judges may no longer

sit in Parliament or engage in party strife. The chief cause of disagreement, however, concerned the raising and spending of public money. The revenue of the province was derived from three sources—the sale or lease of public or Crown lands and mines, excise duties on spirits and molasses, and Customs duties or taxes on imported goods. The first two were imposed by the Crown and formed a permanent revenue, upon which the Governor could draw at his pleasure. The last were raised by the Assembly and could only pass by its vote into the hands of the Executive. All the moneys raised in the colony must be expended for its benefit, and the Assembly claimed that no one had any right to spend a shilling of public money without its consent, or for any purpose of which it did not approve.

The Governor and his Executive Council, on the other hand, fixed and paid the salaries of all officials, most, if not all of whom, were appointed by the Crown. The Assembly was expected to vote whatever sum, in addition to the permanent revenue, the Executive required for that purpose. When its members urged their right to control the whole revenue, they were met with a demand that they should set aside a certain sum each year for the salaries of all officials. If the Assembly refused to grant all the money asked for by the Executive, or if it passed measures displeasing to the governor, it was prorogued or dissolved. The Legislative Council often prevented bills passed by the Assembly from becoming law, and the Assembly, in its turn, would grant no supplies. The governor would then pay the salaries from that part of the revenue to which he had access. More than once a governor general was obliged to meet the expenses of the government by borrowing money from the fund entrusted to him as commander in chief of the British forces in Canada. The strife between the Assembly and the Executive over the questions of revenue and salaries was exceedingly bitter.

Revenue and Salaries.

A dispute between Upper and Lower Canada led to the inter-

ference of the Imperial Government. Acts had been passed in England and the two Canadas granting one-fifth of the customs duties collected in Lower Canada, to the western province. The Lower Canadian law on this matter expired in 1819, and the Assembly refused to re-enact it. England took the matter in her own hands and settled the dispute by passing the Canada Trade Act in 1822, compelling Lower Canada to hand over to her sister province her old share of the revenue. At the same time the Home Government passed an Act for the union of the provinces, which was not to become law without their consent. It was so distasteful to the majority of French-Canadians that it was never put in force. As might have been expected, this action of the British Government added to the irritation of those who were trying to get the management of public affairs into the hands of the people, and the strife between the ruling party and the Assembly grew hotter. When it was found that a receiver-general had misappropriated nearly half a million dollars' worth of public funds, the anger and discontent reached a dangerous point. The arbitrary conduct of the governor-general, Lord Dalhousie, added fuel to the fire. In 1828 the British Government sent out a commission, which advised a number of reforms, but would recommend no change in the constitution. The governors who succeeded Lord Dalhousie granted every reform that the constitution would allow, except the control of the revenues before referred to, which was retained by the direction of the authorities in England. In spite of this moderation, matters grew worse. The Assembly insisted upon the Legislative Council being made elective and the ministers responsible to the people.

Disturbing Factors.

In 1834 the Assembly drew up a document called the Ninety-two Resolutions, in which all the grievances suffered or imagined by the colony were recited, and self-government and the control of the revenue demanded. This document was sent in the form

of a petition to England. The more moderate reformers now joined with the minority and hastened to assure the British Government of their loyalty and faith in its justice. English statesmen carefully considered the representations of both parties, recalled the governor and sent out a commission, consisting of Lord Gosford, Sir George Gipps and Sir Charles Grey, to enquire into the state of the colony. Lord Gosford, the new governor, had instructions to provide in every way possible for the good government of the people of Lower Canada. But no reforms brought about by the representatives of the British Government would content Louis Joseph Papineau, Dr. Wolfred Nelson and their followers. The Assembly tried to force the governor to grant their demands by starving public servants and neglecting public works. For five years it granted no supplies.

So far, Papineau had been able to lead the people at his will. In 1837 meetings were held throughout the colony. The agitators urged the people to throw off the yoke of England and establish a French Canadian Republic *La Nation Canadienne*. Now the more moderate of his own compatriots forsook Papineau. The priests hastened to beseech their flocks not to plunge into useless rebellion and bloodshed.

CHAPTER XXVII.

THE RISING.

Up to February of 1837 the British Government had honestly but vainly striven to allay the discontent of its subjects in Lower Canada. Then, after hearing the report of its commission, the policy was changed and a law passed commanding the governor to seize the provincial treasury and take therefrom a sum sufficient to pay all arrears of salary. The news of this step roused the passions of the already excited agitators in Lower Canada to the point of armed resistance. All pretence of loyalty was thrown aside. Tumultuous mobs assembled and were urged by their leaders to prepare for war. A proclamation was issued by the governor forbidding these meetings. Sir John Colborne was sent out in spring to command the forces; and all the regulars in both Canadas, with the loyal militia of Glengarry, assembled at Montreal. The bishops called upon all good Catholics to keep the peace. But no considerations of prudence, loyalty or religion availed to stem the tide of rebellion. The insurgents along the Richelieu to the south, and in the district of Two Mountains to the north of Montreal, prepared for resistance. In the city of Montreal, as elsewhere, the Loyalists and the followers of Papineau formed themselves into opposing clubs. It was here that first blood was shed in a street fight between the Doric Club and the Sons of Liberty. Encounters between the soldiers and the rebel peasants took place at St. Denis, St. Charles, St. Eustache and St. Benoit. At St. Denis, Colonel Gore was defeated by the bravest of the insurgent leaders, Dr. Wolfred Nelson. Near this place Lieutenant Weir, a brave young officer, was shot down and cut to pieces. He had been captured while carrying

Unruly Mobs.

despatches to Colonel Gore, and was attempting to escape. This outrage, which aroused the indignation of the soldiers, was committed without the knowledge of the gallant commander of St. Denis. At St. Charles the rebels were defeated. Shortly after, Dr. Nelson was captured. Papineau and other leaders, brave in words, had already fled to the United States. At St. Eustache, Sir John Colborne destroyed by fire and sword the brave but desperate band of rebels who had taken refuge in the parish church and stood their ground while others fled. The crowd of half armed peasants at St. Benoit submitted. The cruel necessities of war compelled the burning of the homes of the deluded villagers. By the close of December the rash and ill planned rising was at an end. It had been confined to a small section of the colony and the mass of the people had taken no part in it. Lower Canada was placed under military rule, with Sir John Colborne at the head of the government. The winter of 1837-38 must have been a sad one for the habitants, who mourned the death of friends, saw their leaders captured, or heard from them secretly as refugees from justice.

It was dark indeed, but it was the darkest hour before dawn. Before the soft gray tints of spring had given way to the tender green of early summer, and while the farmers were still busy with their spring sowing, Lord Durham arrived from England

Remedy for Discontent.

with full powers to enquire into the recent troubles, and to find a remedy for the discontent not only in Lower Canada but in all the provinces of British North America. He at once appointed an Executive Council and sought information from all sources. He brought to the work all the powers of an acute and well cultivated mind and a sound judgment. In his famous report he recommended the union of the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, and whenever it should become feasible, of all the provinces of British North America. He pointed out the benefits that would result from the building of an intercolonial railroad. He advised

that power should be given to towns and thickly-settled districts to regulate their own affairs and raise money for their own expenses. Above all he urged the necessity of responsible government, and pointed out the folly of interference by the Imperial authorities with the management of the internal affairs of the colonies.

Very unfortunately, Lord Durham exceeded his instructions by banishing to Bermuda eight of the rebels (one of whom was Dr. Nelson) and forbidding others who were self-exiled to return to Canada on pain of death. This he did because he thought the presence of these men would be a menace to the peace of the colony. When this decree was found fault with by the Home Government, the impetuous nobleman threw up his commission and sailed for England, where he died two years later. In the six months spent in Canada he accomplished a great work. He was the first great English statesman who recognized the right of colonists to all the privileges of British citizenship, and is therefore entitled to the gratitude not only of Canada but of all those parts of the Empire which have received the name of "Greater Britain."

Lord Durham.

After Durham's departure another attempt to raise a rebellion was made by the insurgents who had taken refuge in the United States. Sir John Colborne met them at Odelltown and completely defeated their ill-advised effort to fan the smouldring embers of disaffection into a flame.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

THE GRIEVANCES OF UPPER CANADA.

Under the Constitutional Act of 1791, the people of Upper Canada were very far from having the power to govern themselves. The Legislature consisted of two Houses, a Lower House or Legislative Assembly whose members were elected by the people, and an Upper House or Legislative Council whose members were appointed by the Crown for life. The governor and Executive Council were also appointed by the Crown. It often happened that a seat in the Legislative Council and one at the table of the Executive Council were held by the same person.

Undesirable Legislation.

When the Assembly passed a bill it was frequently thrown out by the Upper House. Even when it was passed by both Houses, the governor could prevent its becoming law by refusing his sanction. If the Assembly granted supplies, the irresponsible Executive used the money as its members pleased. Should the Assembly refuse to vote money, over whose expenditure it had no control, the governor would dissolve the House. He did this the more readily, as he was not altogether dependent on the Assembly for money to pay his own salary and the salaries of other officials of the colony. As settlers came in and bought land and leased timber limits and mining lands, the money paid by them formed a fund which was at the disposal of the governor and executive.

In the early years of Upper Canada the settlers did not feel this independence of the governor and executive to be a great grievance. The farmers were too busy clearing lands and providing for their families, to find time to devote to the public affairs of a colony which was yet scarcely home to them. The

governors, with the help of their surveyors and engineers, were engaged in planning and constructing roads, canals and other public works, while the chief justices and magistrates enforced the laws and punished offenders. The revenue was very small and the Mother Country had to send out money to pay the expenses of the colony. But as time went on and population increased, Upper Canada became self-supporting. The farmers and other working people who paid most of the taxes felt it a



SOCIAL HEADQUARTERS OF THE FAMILY COMPACT, TORONTO.
(Now the residence of Professor Goldwin Smith.)

hardship that there should be a class of officials sent from England or chosen from the oldest and wealthiest families in the colony who were well paid for doing the public work, and who, it was believed, looked down upon their humbler fellow-citizens. So it came about that the lawyers, the surveyors, the members of the Executive Council, the military officers and some of the richest merchants formed a society of their own. As these

people were the constant associates of the governor; they used their influence to persuade him to obtain from England the appointment of their relations and friends to such offices as became vacant. Such a class, called sometimes the Family Compact, existed in all the British North American colonies. In Upper Canada this class was cordially hated by the mass of the people. It must not be thought, however, that all the officials were dishonest or negligent of their duties. There were among them men of high principle and great ability, who served their country faithfully and won the respect even of their bitterest opponents.

Clergy Reserves.

Next to the defects in the system of government, the Clergy Reserves were looked upon as the greatest injustice suffered by the colonists. By the Constitutional Act one-seventh of the Crown lands was set apart for the support of the Protestant clergy. The Church of England in the province claimed and obtained the sole right to the revenue from the Reserves. After much agitation, the Presbyterians of the Established Church of Scotland succeeded in getting a share of this land. But the majority of the settlers believed that the State should neither support nor control the religion of its subjects. They commenced an agitation for the abolition of the Reserves and asked that the money obtained from Clergy Reserve lands should be devoted to education or some object in which the whole province would share. The clergy of the Church of England, foremost among whom was Bishop Strachan, wrote and spoke in favor of the Reserves. One of their ablest and earliest opponents was a young Methodist minister, Egerton Ryerson. The evil fruits of the religious controversies of those days long remained to embitter society in Canada. Sir John Colborne, who was governor during the stormy years between 1828 and 1835, gave great offence to the people who did not believe in State aid to religion, by ordering fifty-six rectories to be formed from the Reserves for

the clergy of the Church of England. Forty-four were actually made. Besides the objections to the Reserves which have been mentioned, was the further objection that they hindered settlement. Every seventh block of land was reserved, and as in some places they were not sold as soon as other lands, the settlers on the cleared farms on either side of such lands were put to much loss and inconvenience. The final settlement of the difficulty was not reached till 1854 (see page 202).

The management of the Crown Lands was another great grievance. Sometimes lands which should have been thrown open to settlement, were reserved by the Crown, and at other times speculators were allowed to choose the best areas, buy them at low prices and keep them vacant till high prices could be exacted. The revenue that came to the government from these Crown lands was often wasted and mismanaged. The speculators were all members, so it was said, of the Family Compact. These and many other abuses and grievances long ago forgotten, would, the people believed, be quickly redressed if the colony should obtain the boon of Responsible Government.

The Family Compact.

Whenever any strong feeling prevails in a community, it is sure to find someone to give it utterance. The governor and the irresponsible Executive and Legislative Councils were determined to silence any voice which found fault with the doings of the Family Compact. Persons who spoke or wrote against any of its acts were accused of libel, and fined or imprisoned. What made it more unlikely that these critics should obtain justice was the fact that the judges in those days were members of the Legislative Council. How great this evil was may be seen from one example. Very soon after the war a Scotchman named Robert Gourlay came to the province and engaged in business as a land agent. He soon found that owing to the state of the colony it was hard to sell land. He wrote out a number of questions and sent them in all directions in

order to find out what was preventing the progress of the colony. From all parts came back answers which pointed to the government as the cause of hard times. Gourlay advised the people to call a convention to discuss measures of reform. For daring to suggest such action to the electors, the agitator was first put in prison and then ordered to leave the country as an *alien*, although he was known to be a British subject. He refused, and for his refusal he was imprisoned without trial for six months. When he was at length brought to trial it was found that trouble, hardship and injustice had driven him out of his mind.

As the years went on, the reformers of Upper Canada divided into two parties. One was determined to wrest violently from the irresponsible Council the power which belonged of right to the people. The other worked more quietly but just as persistently to place good laws on the statute book, to expose corruption and to reform abuses. At the same time its members hoped that the day would come when the force of public opinion would compel even the Family Compact to rule the province according to the will of the people. If this hope should fail they still had faith to believe that the sense of justice of the British Parliament would sooner or later cause it to repeal that part of the Constitutional Act which made it possible for an irresponsible executive to tyrannize over British subjects. These reformers felt that, bad as things were in Upper Canada, they would become much worse through violence of speech or action. The leading representative of these moderate and constitutional reformers was Robert Baldwin.

The leader of the former party and the most conspicuous actor in the troubles that resulted from the agitation was William Lyon Mckenzie. This hot tempered, excitable, but withal talented little Scotchman came to Canada in 1820. He published a newspaper called the *Colonial Advocate*. In its columns the mistakes and misdoings of the ruling party were relentlessly

exposed. So hateful did the paper become to the Family Compact that a number of its young men broke into McKenzie's office in broad daylight and destroyed his printing press. For this outrage the only punishment was a fine. McKenzie was elected to the Assembly and sent as a delegate to England to ask the British ministry to remove the grievances from which the colony suffered. Four times his enemies were able to expel him from the House, but as often the electors of York returned him as their representative. When in 1834 the town of York became the city of Toronto, McKenzie was elected mayor by the men who had come to look upon him as their champion in the struggle for freedom.



SIR FRANCIS BOND HEAD.

Perhaps no one can long harbor feelings of anger and bitter resentment even against wrong without having his moral sense weakened and his judgment impaired. McKenzie and his friends allowed their indignation to overbear discretion, and they entered upon a course which brought trouble upon the colony and misery and disgrace upon themselves. Just when the affairs of Upper Canada needed the wisest guidance, Sir Francis Bond Head was sent from England as governor, with instructions to do his utmost to remove the grievances complained of by the reformers. Instead of carrying out these instructions in an impartial way, he became a supporter of the Family Compact. He appointed three members of the Reform Party to the Executive, but, as he told them he was not bound to ask their advice, they declined to act. The Assembly refused to grant supplies, and very unwisely

they put themselves in the wrong by listening while the Speaker read an appeal for help from Papineau, who was inciting the colonists of Lower Canada to rebellion. Members of the extreme party not only censured the governor but declared that while Upper Canada remained a British colony her people would never enjoy the rights of freemen. The governor was quick to seize upon the advantage which the imprudent acts and speeches of Mr. McKenzie and his followers gave him. He dissolved the Assembly and appealed to the loyalty of the electors to refuse to return the reformers. He was successful and they were defeated.

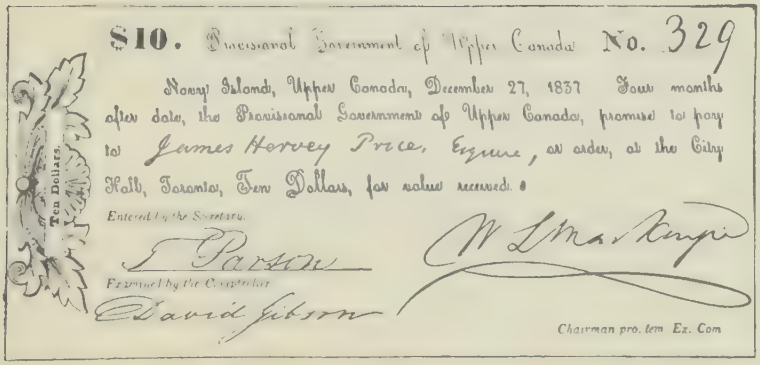


WILLIAM LYON McKENZIE

McKenzie and his friends now openly advocated rebellion. By December, 1837, he had succeeded in gathering a small force together. The regular soldiers had gone to Lower Canada to suppress the rebellion led by Papineau and Nelson. Though McKenzie had provoked the people to sedition in his writings and speeches, and though men were known to be drilling in the neighborhood of Toronto, the governor took no steps to prevent a rising. The rebels planned to seize a store of arms which was kept in the City Hall, Toronto, take the governor and chief executive councillors prisoners and set up a republic, with Rolph as president. In the meantime a provisional government, led by McKenzie, was formed on Navy Island in Niagara River. The plans of the rebels miscarried.

They were not able to seize the City Hall, and Colonel McNab, with a detachment of militia, met a half-armed body of the insurgents at Montgomery's tavern, near Toronto, and dispersed them. McKenzie and Rolph fled to Buffalo, but returned after a few days to Navy Island. Supplies were carried to the rebel camp from Fort Schlosser, on the American side, by a little steamer called the Caroline. A party of volunteers from McNab's militia, stationed on the opposite shore, succeeded in carrying off the Caroline from under the guns of Fort Schlosser, set her on fire and sent her, flaming, over Niagara Falls. As the Caroline was an American ship the United States demanded and obtained an apology from England for her destruction. About the middle of January, 1838, McKenzie abandoned Navy Island, and the rebellion in Upper Canada was over. During this year several attempts were made by United States sympathizers with the rebels, to invade the province and establish a republic. The descendants of the Loyalists refused to join in the insurrection, but ere long they secured by constitutional means a full redress of all the grievances that had brought on the rash and hopeless rebellion of 1837.

Burning the "Caroline."



CHAPTER XXIX.

IMPROVEMENT.

Many pages have been filled with the record of war and strife, but it must not be thought that in the quarter of a century between the commencement of the war of 1812 and the close of the rebellion of 1837, the chief business of Canadians was either politics or war. Year by year the forest receded from lake and river. Clearings grew into settlements, and at the mouths of rivers or on their banks villages appeared, while towns at the harbors were developing into cities. With greater plenty and convenient markets, the farmer found means to purchase goods and implements. His wife and daughters were no longer obliged to depend altogether for their wardrobes on the materials which their busy but unskilled fingers manufactured from the wool of their own sheep or flax from their own fields. Stuff dresses, straw or silk bonnets, and cotton for children's frocks, aprons and sunbonnets were bought at the village store at prices which afforded a handsome profit to the country merchants.

Reports of the fertility of the soil of Canada had reached Great Britain, and every year saw increasing numbers of immigrants seeking homes in the colonies where settlers need no longer endure all the hardships of early pioneer life. Some of these immigrants could afford to pay for farms and buy stock and implements. Others came from impoverished districts and brought little with them but strong arms and willing hearts. Some had even to be fed and lodged at the expense of the seaport town where they landed. But they were generally honest, industrious people and there was room and work for all

In those days few of the weak and vicious members of any community ventured to face the dangers of a sea voyage and the hardships of life in a new country.

The earliest commerce of Canada was carried on by means of canoes. Then followed the great flat-bottomed Durham boats. Sailing vessels sped up and down the St. Lawrence and over the lakes, but between Montreal and Lake Ontario the rapids made navigation very dangerous and in many places impossible. In 1809 John Molson built the first steamboat to ply between Quebec and Montreal. Fourteen years later there were seven steamers on the same route, and in 1826 there were as many on Lake Ontario. The first steamer to cross the Atlantic—the Royal William—was built in Quebec 1830-31. To overcome the difficulties of inland navigation canals were made. The Rideau Canal, from the Ottawa River to Kingston, was begun by Colonel By. The Lachine Canal was opened in 1821, and in 1829 the first Welland Canal was constructed. The newly arrived immigrants found work in the lumber camps, in the shipyards and on the canals, as well as on the numerous government roads and bridges which opened up new districts. Some of these laborers afterwards engaged in trade in the cities, but most of them invested their savings in farms, where they and their families lived in humble but independent comfort. As the settlements grew larger, schools were opened. During the winter months the sturdy boys and girls of the new settlers often tramped for miles to school through the snow, or in the long midsummer days filed barefoot over the fragrant woodland paths. They were almost as wild and shy as the hare or the deer that bounded away at sight or sound of them. In the rude log schoolhouse with its ruder furniture they spent the day studying volumes that, as we find them now in some old garret or forgotten chest, look very unlike the nicely bound and prettily illustrated books that are

Construction of Canals.

in the hands of the school children of our day. Among them the Bible almost always had a place and was used as a daily lesson book. The schoolmasters—for there were few or no schoolmistresses in those days—were sometimes old soldiers who turned to account the knowledge acquired at home before they joined the army in some wild hour when rumors of French invasion roused the patriotism that lies still and deep in the heart of every true Briton. Oftener, perhaps, they were men whose minds had been inspired with the love of learning and the love of freedom in the schools of New England. Among the Scotch immigrants were teachers who had obtained a good education in Edinburgh or Aberdeen, and who brought to Canada that skill in imparting knowledge for which Scottish schoolmasters have ever been noted. Some of these teachers and many of their scholars have filled an important place in Canadian history. It was not long before boys who graduated from the log schoolhouse were filled with the ambition to pursue their studies further, and in 1827 a royal charter was obtained for King's College in Toronto as a Church of England institution. Bishop Strachan, who was at that time Archdeacon of York, was really its founder. Objecting to the control of one church over a provincial university, the Methodists and Presbyterians immediately took steps to found schools of their own—Victoria College and Queen's College.



INTERIOR OF OLD SCHOOLHOUSE.

In 1849 the University was removed from Church control

and reorganized as the University of Toronto. Trinity College was then established as a Church of England institution. In 1887 the present organization of the University of Toronto was effected by the University Federation Act, according to which Victoria and Trinity take their places in a group of colleges under the one provincial university. In 1830 Upper Canada



UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO.

College was founded. In the meantime grammar schools had been opened in villages and towns. As we have seen in studying the history of French occupation, the nuns and Jesuits were the earliest instructors of the youth of Canada. But at the conquest, the Jesuits were banished. The education of the *habitants* had never been general, and although a public school system had been established in Lower Canada early in the century, it was not till the very eve of the rebellion that we find the people had begun to take advantage of it.

It was during this period that McGill College was founded, in 1821, and shortly after the Union the great Roman Catholic seat of learning, Laval University, already alluded to, was established.

CHAPTER XXX.

UNION.

When British statesmen read Lord Durham's report they became convinced that the Constitutional Act was no longer suitable for the government of Canada. By dividing the colony into two provinces it had made jealousy and dissension between them possible. The St. Lawrence formed the common entrance to both Upper and Lower Canada, and it was not easy to distribute fairly to each province the revenue derived from customs duties. In Lower Canada the interest and feelings of the English-speaking minority were so different from those of their fellow-subjects of French descent as to render popular government very difficult. But the chief fault of the Constitutional Act was, that while the people were thereby allowed to express their will through representatives in the Legislative Assembly, yet the Legislative and Executive Council were appointed by the Crown and had power to prevent the carrying out of the will of the people. This had been the fruitful source of discontent and agitation, and at last of rebellion. The British government set itself to find a remedy for these evils, and the result was the Act of Union, of which the following were the principal provisions:—

1st. There was to be one legislature for all Canada. 2nd. The Governor-General and the Legislative Council were to be appointed by the Crown. 3rd. The Provinces were to be equally represented in the Legislative Assembly. 4th. The governor was to select his advisers from the members of both Houses, and those chosen from the assembly must return to their constituents for re-election. 5th. The assembly received control of all public money, but it was bound to set aside a certain sum yearly for the payment of the governor, the judges and other civil servants.

The Union Act did not become law till it had been passed by the Legislature of Upper Canada and by the council which ruled Lower Canada. The new governor, Mr. Poulett Thompson, was instructed to rule the colony according to the wishes of the people. He succeeded in gaining the assent to the new constitution of the governments of both Canadas. In 1841 he was created Lord Sydenham and made Governor-General of United Canada. He had been a successful merchant and brought to his high station that industry, intelligence and tact which had made him eminent in the business world. Although his official actions were shaped by the advice of ministers who had the confidence of the majority of the assembly, yet he exercised great influence over the affairs of Canada, and when he died in 1843 he was greatly lamented.

Improvements in Education.

In the parliament of 1841 an Act was passed granting to every district in Upper Canada, containing seven thousand persons, the privilege of taxing its property holders for education and local improvements. The municipal system, as this plan of doing public business is called, takes from the general government a great deal of work which is better and more cheaply done by the municipalities; at the same time it educates men in the art of conducting public affairs. In 1842 a public school system was established, and in 1844 Dr. Ryerson was appointed Superintendent of Education. It is to the wise labors of this eminent man, who studied the workings of the schools of Germany, the United States and other countries, that Ontario owes the high position her schools have since held.

In the Act of Union the powers of the governor were not clearly set forth, and it was not long before a dispute arose between a governor and his ministry. Sir Charles Metcalfe, in 1844 appointed certain officials without consulting his advisers. Messrs. Baldwin and Lafontaine, the leaders of the Liberal government, declared that they could not hold office if the

governor refused to ask the advice of the executive. They resigned, but the people took sides with the governor and a Conservative government was returned. Sir Charles Metcalfe soon after fell ill and left the country, and since his time no Canadian governor has acted against the advice of his cabinet.

In uniting the provinces, British statesmen hoped that the quarrel between French-Canadians and English Canadians would cease and that both races would work together for the good of the colony. That hope was only partially fulfilled. One of the evidences that race jealousy was slow to die out was that during almost the whole of the thirty-six years of the union period there were two leaders of the government— one from Upper Canada, the other from Lower Canada.



LORD ELGIN.

As it was feared there would be trouble with the United States over what was known as the Oregon Boundary, a soldier, Lord Catheart, was sent out as governor in 1845. The danger passed away, and Lord Elgin, the most notable of the governors of the period, arrived in 1847 and held office till 1854. During his time the reformers had things all their own way. In 1847 Canada obtained from the mother country the power so long contended for, of regulating the salaries of her civil servants. The next year the Union Act was amended so that the French language could be used in par-

liament and in official documents. This removed one of the chief objections held by the French-Canadians to the new constitution.

The majority of the legislators of England for many generations had been landowners, and very naturally the laws which they made, guarded the interests of landowners. In the nineteenth century much of the political power passed into the hands of manufacturers and merchants. They convinced the English Parliament that some of the old taxes were very unjust. England did not produce enough food to feed the multitudes that thronged her great manufacturing and seaport towns. Yet the corn laws imposed heavy duties on imported wheat, and thus raised the price of bread till workmen found it impossible to provide for their families. Wise and eloquent men wrote and spoke against the injustice of these laws till, in 1846, they were repealed. Soon other import duties were removed. English merchants were allowed to buy goods wherever they could get them cheapest, whether the country they bought from was friendly to England or not. If her own people could not raise wheat or manufacture goods as cheaply as foreigners, they must do something else for a living—something that they could do better and at less cost than others could do it elsewhere. Thus England became what is called a Free Trade country. For nearly two hundred years the laws of England had declared that no goods were to be sold anywhere in the British dominions except those that were carried in English ships and bought in British ports. These laws for the benefit of British merchants and shipowners, were repealed in 1849, as those for the benefit of the landlords had been in 1846.

Unjust Taxation.

Up to this time flour and some other products of Canada had been admitted into England at a lower rate of duty than the same articles coming from other countries. Now the duties on Canadian goods were made the same as those from the rest of the world.

On the other hand England had, heretofore, framed part of

the customs duties of all her colonies, and the colonists could impose only such other duties as were sanctioned by her. Now Canada obtained control of her own customs and might admit goods free or might charge such duties as were deemed suitable to the needs of the colony. In 1851 England at last saw the folly of trying to manage the postal affairs of an immense country three thousand miles away, and since then Canada has very successfully conducted that branch of the public service.

Lord Sydenham was able, in 1840, to get for such denomination as desired it, a share of the Clergy Reserves. In 1854 the whole question was settled by selling all the remaining Clergy Reserve lands. After providing for those clergymen who had at that time an interest in the reserves, the balance was divided among the different municipalities, to be spent for the common good. Since then each religious body in Canada has been supported by the contributions of its own members.

Governor Elgin saw the last of a still more time-honored custom in Lower Canada. Seigneurial tenure, which was almost as old as French Canada, gave certain perpetual rights in the land to the Crown and to the seigneurs, or landed gentry. The habitant could not buy his land outright and become a freeholder, but though nominally the owner of the land he must still pay certain annual dues, and whenever he sold his holding he must give one-twelfth of the proceeds of the sale to the seigneur. In course of time the Crown gave up its rights, and at last even the seigneurs came to see that the old system was a tax on improvements, for the more the farmer improved his land the more money he would be forced to part with when he sold. By the law passed in 1854, called the Seigneurial Tenure Bill, the seigneurs were paid by the government for their interest in the land and the habitants were made freeholders, to keep, to improve or to sell their holdings free from all dues to the seigneurs.

In 1846 the Canadian parliament voted £10,000 to make good to Upper Canadians the losses brought on them by the

rebellion. A claim for similar treatment for Lower Canadians was rejected by the government of the day, who seemed to think that the French people of Lower Canada had all been rebels and had, therefore, no right to compensation. Under a new government in 1849 the claim was brought up again and approved by the legislature. This aroused the indignation of the English-speaking people, who maintained that the rebels, or at least their sympathizers, were to be rewarded. It should be stated, however, that a clause in the Act provided that no one who had taken part in the rebellion should receive compensation.

Rebellion Losses Bill.

It was thought that the governor, as the representative of the Queen, would refuse to sign the bill. Lord Elgin, however, did not feel that he had any right to oppose the will of the majority. On his return from the House of Parliament, where he had gone for the purpose of giving his assent to the Rebellion Losses Bill, he was attacked by an angry mob. After insulting him and putting his life in some danger, they set fire to the parliament buildings, destroying state papers and a very valuable library.

After this outrage Montreal ceased to be the capital of Canada. The Parliament met in Toronto and Quebec alternately till, in 1858, the Queen, on the request of Parliament, made choice of a permanent capital, and her choice fell on By-town, now Ottawa. In 1866 the splendid new buildings were occupied by the legislature. After a time the rebel leaders were pardoned and allowed to return to Canada. They were afterwards elected to seats in the House of Assembly, but they never regained their influence. Their work was done. Though we cannot but blame them for their rash attempt at rebellion, which might have brought much misery upon the country, yet we should not forget that they struggled and suffered to gain the blessings of civil and religious liberty which have, since their time, been secured by better methods.

In 1856, during the governorship of Sir Edmund Head, the

British Government made Canada completely self-governing by granting its people the power of electing the legislative council. This was a change that had long been hotly contended for by the reformers and as stubbornly resisted by the Colonial Office in England.

During the period of union (1840–1867) the population of Canada was more than doubled, and the improvement of the colony kept pace with the increase in population. Education became more general, churches multiplied, roads and bridges,



VICTORIA BRIDGE, MONTREAL.

canals and railroads were built. In 1860 the magnificent Victoria Bridge over the St. Lawrence was opened by the Prince of Wales, now King Edward VII.

In Canada poverty was rare and want almost unknown. Before the close of the union period, the pioneers and early settlers had, for the most part, gone to their rest; and the few, who in the evening of their days looked upon laden orchards, glowing cornfields or rich pastures, felt that the faith in their adopted country which had supported them through their early struggles and privation, had been more than justified. But although the country was prosperous there was great political unrest. The causes of the trouble and the events that led to the fourth great change in the Canadian Constitution will be given in another chapter.

CHAPTER XXXI.

CANADA AND THE UNITED STATES.

When in 1783 the treaty was made by which the thirteen colonies became the United States of America, the boundary line between that country and the British territory was laid down as the Ste. Croix River and the height of land that separates the streams flowing into the Atlantic from those emptying into the St. Lawrence. The surrounding region was then a wilderness, but soon the state of Maine and the colony of New Brunswick were formed, with the same indefinite boundaries, for no one knew which Ste. Croix River was meant, nor just what part of the watershed was intended for the boundary line. After a diligent search, the ruins of De Monts' ill-fated settlement were found in 1798, which decided that the river now known as the Ste. Croix formed part of the western boundary of British North America. As yet no one wanted to settle inland. But as shipyards arose along the coast, the lumbermen of both Maine and New Brunswick went into the disputed territory to search for the finest timber. The United States authorities tried to drive out the colonial lumbermen, and in 1839 soldiers were sent both by Maine and New Brunswick to protect their interests. But Canadians and Americans had learned to respect each other, and England did not want to go to war if war could be honorably avoided. Mr. Baine, afterwards Lord Ashburton, was sent by England to meet Daniel Webster, of the United States, to see if between them they could find some means of fairly settling the quarrel. An agreement called the Ashburton Treaty was made in 1842, by which the United States received seven thousand, and Canada five thousand square

Indefinite Boundaries.

miles of the disputed territory. This decision gave away a large tract of land to which the Canadians believed themselves entitled. At the same time an Extradition Treaty was framed by which either the colonies or the United States could send across the frontier for criminals who had fled from one country to the other.

We have seen that England, when she repealed the Navigation Laws, allowed her colonies almost complete freedom of regulating their own trade policy. In 1854 Lord Elgin saw that it would be greatly to the advantage of Canadians to be able to send free of duty their farm produce, their lumber and their fish to the cities of the neighboring states. The colonies, on the other hand, afforded an excellent market for many of the products of the farms and mines of the United States. The merchants of the New England and middle states were very anxious to send their goods freely up and down the St. Lawrence and through the canals that Canadians had, at great expense, constructed.

Freedom of Trade.

Along the coasts of New Brunswick, Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island were numerous sheltered bays which afforded excellent feeding grounds for shoals of herring, cod, mackerel and bass. By international law all the fish in the waters within three miles of the shore were the property of the colonies. The New England fishermen coveted the profitable privilege of fishing inside the three-mile limit.

A treaty called the Reciprocity Treaty, was made, by which the products of the land, the sea and the mines of each country were admitted without duty to the other. The Americans gained access to the fisheries of Canada and were allowed to navigate the St. John and the St. Lawrence rivers and the Canadian canals. This treaty remained in force for eleven years, greatly to the advantage of both British colonists and the north eastern states of the Union.

In 1856 the people of the Republic were angry with the

English on account of the sympathy shown with the South during the civil war. The prairie states were being rapidly settled. The mineral riches of the river-beds and mountains of the west had been discovered, and pioneers were following the gold-seekers to the Pacific coast. A large party in the United States believed that in so immense a country, with such varied resources, enough could be produced to supply all the wants of the nation. To encourage people to settle on new land in the Western States and to start factories, high duties were placed on all imports. It was hoped that by making foreign goods more expensive the people would not use them, and that everything produced in the states would command high prices. This is what is called a Protective Tariff. The reciprocity treaty with Canada was accordingly abrogated. Many people on both sides of the line declared that Canadians would be ruined, and not a few, that the British provinces would be forced to join the United States. But the sons of the men who fifty years before had driven back the American invaders, were independent. They looked for and found other markets, and remained undisturbed by the threatening prophecies.

Protective Tariff.

Having followed the history of Upper Canada and Lower Canada to the eve of Confederation, we now turn aside to see what had been taking place in the sister colonies which were soon to throw in their lot with the larger provinces and form the Dominion of Canada.

CHAPTER XXXII.

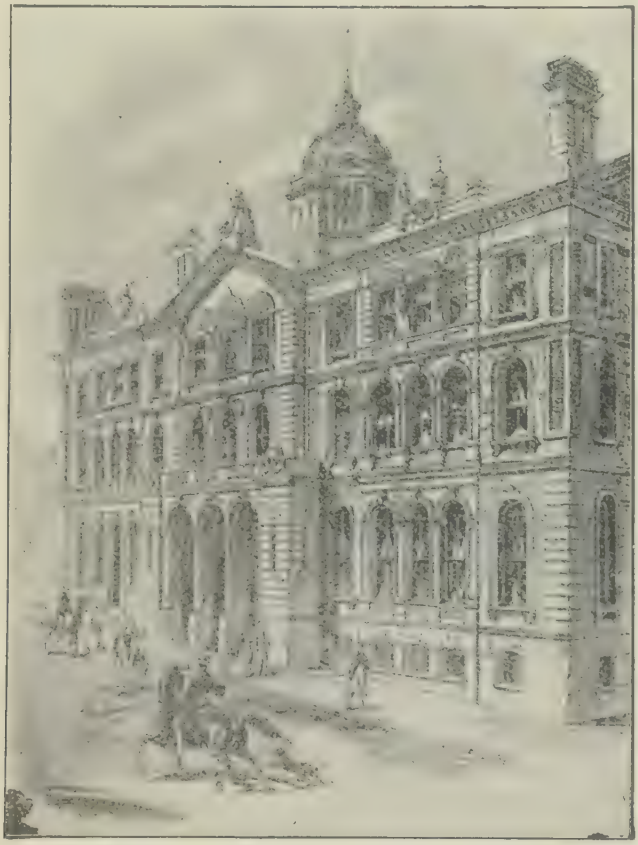
NOVA SCOTIA.

We have already traced the history of Nova Scotia to the expulsion of the Acadians in 1755. Six years before that time Governor Cornwallis landed at Chebucto Bay, on the eastern coast of the peninsula, and in the same year between two and three thousand immigrants arrived. In four years a town was built and strongly fortified—for Halifax, as the new city was named, was intended to take the place of Louisbourg, which in 1748 had been handed back to the French by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle. The sound of hammer and saw had scarcely ceased at Halifax when vessels arrived bearing German Protestants and French Huguenots. These new colonists made their homes in the county of Lunenburg where their descendants still live. About the same time two thousand immigrants from the north of Ireland settled in what is now Colchester county, bringing with them the knowledge of the culture and manufacture of flax. Excellent colonists these people made.

Retrospect.

After the last struggle between the English and French was ended, Governor Lawrence went resolutely to work to settle the colony. In 1760, by his invitation, a number of New Englanders came to Nova Scotia and took up land at various places along the Bay of Fundy and in the southern counties. Having already learned the lesson of colonization, they prospered in their new homes, and their descendants had a large share in the making of the province. For the fifty years beginning with 1773, Highlanders arrived to people the northern and eastern counties of Nova Scotia, transferring to a new home their pride of race and their patriotism.

In 1783 the great immigration of Loyalists filled up the waste places of the colony and laid the foundations of New Brunswick. The trials, the struggles and the successes of the Loyalists have been spoken of elsewhere. In Nova Scotia as well as New Brunswick and in Upper Canada, it is easy to trace the early



OLD PROVINCE BUILDING, HALIFAX.

prosperity of the colonies to their labors. British laws and representative institutions had already been established, for Cornwallis had instituted courts and appointed officers of justice, while Lawrence had, in 1758, summoned the first House of Assembly.

In later years a number of Roman Catholic Irish came to Nova Scotia. Some of their descendants have adorned the bar, the legislative halls and the pulpit by their wit and eloquence.

In this way the colony was settled by people from many lands, but the different races soon blended, and for a long time men of every descent have counted it an honor to be called Nova Scotians. Cape Breton was, for the thirty-six years between 1784 and 1820, a separate colony, but since 1820 the island has formed part of Nova Scotia. Between 1794 and 1799 the Duke of Kent, grandfather of King Edward VII., commanded the troops stationed at Halifax, and its citizens still cherish mementos of his sojourn there.

Nova Scotia has produced heroes of her own worthy of the highest honor. Of these we may mention General Sir Fenwick Williams, the brave defender of Kars against the Russians, General Inglis, one of the heroic officers of the garrison of Lucknow, and Captains Parker and Welsford, who fell at Sebastopol while storming the Redan in the Crimean war.

During England's wars with France and the United States, large bodies of troops and many warships were stationed in Halifax, and the supplies needed by them brought business and prosperity to the city and country. The fertile valleys of the Annapolis and other rivers became the homes of prosperous settlers. Fishermen found in Nova Scotia abundant and profitable occupation, and the coal mines of Cape Breton and Pictou county gave employment to a smaller but ever increasing number of men. In later days iron and gold mines were developed. But busy as they were, the early colonists were not forgetful of their own and their children's higher needs. Clergymen



A FISHERMAN.

and schoolmasters were among the first immigrants. Several churches were built before the close of the eighteenth century, and King's College was founded at Windsor. Here many eminent men, not only of Nova Scotia, but of the neighboring colonies, received their education. As time went on other colleges were established, all of which have done good work, and Dalhousie College, at Halifax, has more than a provincial reputation.

The first great political question that disturbed the colonists of Nova Scotia was that of freedom of conscience. In 1783, the laws preventing Roman Catholics from having churches of their own were repealed, and in 1827 men of that faith were allowed all the privileges which their Protestant fellow-colonists enjoyed. At first the Church of England ministers and schoolmasters were paid by the government, but this practice was discontinued about the time responsible government was inaugurated. Dr. Inglis was consecrated Bishop of Nova Scotia in 1787. He was the first Church of England bishop in British North America. His diocese was Nova Scotia, Upper and Lower Canada, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, Bermuda and Newfoundland. Considering that in those days there were neither railroads nor steamships, we may form some idea of the length of time it would take the good bishop to visit his scattered flock. His journeys and labors may be taken as an example of the apostolic work done in all the churches of the early settlers.

Freedom of Conscience.

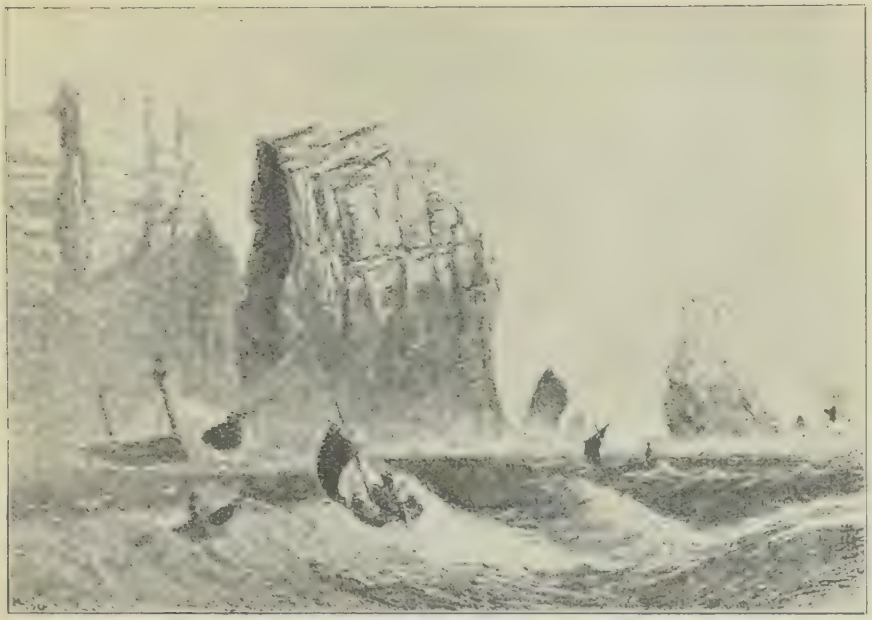
The cause of education, as well as the cause of religion, found wise and able supporters in Nova Scotia. Of these the most notable was Dr. Dawson, afterwards Sir William Dawson, principal of McGill University, Montreal. From 1850 to 1855 he was Superintendent of Education for Nova Scotia. Under his administration the schools increased greatly in numbers and improved in efficiency. His work had much to do with the establishment of the free school system in 1864.

Like all British American colonies Nova Scotia had a vigorous struggle for responsible government, and when that was granted, there ensued contests with governors who still wished to exercise the power that belonged to the people. The agitation was led by the Hon. Joseph Howe, the greatest orator and one of the ablest statesmen British North America has produced. Without the slightest breach of the law, he won the victory for responsible government—a victory which cost the people of Upper Canada and Lower Canada so much in rebellion and bloodshed.



JOSEPH HOWE.

As time passed on, many Nova Scotians believed that it would be to their advantage if the three maritime colonies were ruled by a single legislature. To bring this about, delegates were sent to a convention held in Charlottetown in 1864. This was the beginning of a movement that changed the colony of Nova Scotia into a province of the Dominion of Canada.



CAPE SPLIT, BAY OF FUNDY.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

NEW BRUNSWICK.

In the Acadian times few Frenchmen made their homes by the forest-bordered rivers that lay in the great wilderness to the north of the Bay of Fundy. Here and there a stronghold rose from which savage bands of Indians and fierce parties of French fur traders issued to attack the defenceless New England colonists or to resist the British soldiers. The friendly and profitable trade which La Tour had carried on with the merchants of Boston ceased with the ruin of his fort. But the marshy lands at the head of the Bay were settled by farmers, and along the Gulf Shore the fishing trade, begun by Nicholas Denys was carried on more or less successfully. During the Seven Years' War bands of fugitives settled along the Miramichi

and other rivers, and there was also a town, Petite Rochelle, built on the Quebec side of the Restigouche. In 1760 a British squadron under Commodore Byron destroyed this town together with a number of French ships that had taken refuge under its guns.

Back to Acadia.

After the war was over some of the Acadians obtained leave to return to their homes, and a few of the British soldiers ventured at great risk from the Indians to occupy the deserted farms near Beauséjour, now called Fort Cumberland. Strangely enough, the first immigrants were men from New England who settled near the present town of Sackville and at the mouth of the St. John or along its banks. These were followed by Germans from Pennsylvania and a little later by a number of English immigrants.

Excepting for such scattered settlements, New Brunswick was a wilderness when the vanguard of the peaceful army of Loyalists who were to take possession of the land arrived at the mouth of the St. John River on the 18th of May, 1783. Before the year closed twelve thousand of these people were making homes for themselves on the banks of the St. John and other rivers.

The next year the western part of Acadia was formed into the Province of New Brunswick, named after the family of kings then reigning in England. The first governor was Colonel Thomas Carleton, brother of Sir Guy Carleton, Governor General of Canada, and, like him, a true patriot and an excellent ruler. The first House of Assembly met in 1785, and in the same year Parrtown and Carleton were united under the name of the City of St. John. St. Anne's, farther up the river, was chosen as a site for the capital of the colony. The city built here received the name of Fredericton, in honor of the second son of King George III. The colony of the United Empire Loyalists prospered from the first. The fine timber of the immense forests was sold to make masts for British ships. Soon at the mouths of the rivers ship building was commenced. The New Englanders were shrewd business

Ship-building.

men and commerce sprang up. At the close of the wars with Napoleon, the Loyalists were joined by numbers of Irish and Scotch settlers. Before this, many of the Acadians had come back and made their homes along the north shore of the province where they could live their primitive life undisturbed by strange customs.

One of the most prosperous parts of the colony was the valley of the Miramichi River. This river afforded every facility for transporting to the sea the grand trees that grew near its banks. At its mouth was a fine sheltered harbor. The farmer followed the lumberman. Settlements were made on the banks and



MODERN ST. JOHN.

prosperous towns sprang up near the mouth of the river. On October 7th, 1825, one hundred and twenty vessels were at anchor in the Miramichi. For weeks the sky had been clouded, and the odor of smoke filled the close air. Strange to say, the settlers and townspeople were unsuspicious of danger, when about sunset a wind sprang up which drove the flames of the forest fire toward the river, and the people were hemmed in between it and the burning woods. Many sought relief from the flames by wading into the water. Others fled to a marsh

near Newcastle. The town of Chatham was crowded with fugitives, who looked helplessly on while their homes, raised with such toil and trouble, were swept away by the sea of fire. Generous givers from far and near sent aid to the two thousand homeless people, and soon their greatest distress was over; but it was many years before the colony recovered from the effect of the destruction of eight thousand square miles of forest. Notwithstanding this, the history of New Brunswick has been one of steady progress. When the ship-building trade declined, other manufactures were introduced, and the noble city of St. John testifies to the enterprise and prosperity of the people of New Brunswick. In 1860 the railway between St. John and Shediac was completed. Telegraph lines and good postal facilities followed the railroads.

The governors of New Brunswick with but one exception were friends of liberty, but here as in all the colonies of British North America, a little band of office-holders stood in the way of progress. The Family Compact was defeated in 1848 and responsible government was introduced. The leaders in the struggle for reform were Lemuel Allan Wilmot, Charles Fisher and J. W. Ritchie. Municipal government was soon after established.

In the early days of the colony, rude schoolhouses had been built, where for a few months of the year the children were taught by schoolmasters, some of them not too well fitted for their duties. In the beginning of the nineteenth century the schools were improved and grammar schools were founded. In 1828 King's College was opened in Fredericton, and in 1844 Charles F. Allison founded and endowed a college at Sackville.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.

The smallest province of Canada is Prince Edward Island. It lies in the form of a crescent to the south of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, close to the shores of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, from which it is divided by the Straits of Northumberland. The fogs that prevail along the eastern coast of the mainland, and in Newfoundland, seldom reach Prince Edward Island and shut out the view of its sparkling waters. It is about two hundred miles in length; its width varies from four to thirty-four miles. The formation is red sandstone, and the sea has worn the soft rock into deep bays, bordered in many places by high cliffs, while long estuaries run inland, forming waterways which afford an easy means of communication. In winter these rivers, as they are called, and the sheltered bays are frozen over and much of the travelling is done on the ice.

Travelling on the Ice.

Late in the autumn the steamboats that ply daily all summer between the island and the mainland are taken off the route and replaced by vessels constructed for the purpose of forcing their way through floating ice. For a few weeks in the depth of winter even these must be laid off, as the channel is packed with ice, and communication is kept up by means of iceboats, which cross from Cape Traverse to Cape Tormentine—the narrowest part of Northumberland Straits.

The Indians called the island Abegweit, the Home on the Wave. They built their summer homes of birch bark on the banks of its sheltered coves, and lived on the shell fish that abounded in the shallow waters. Farming and fishing, with the allied industries of dairying, horticulture, stock-breeding, poultry-raising and preserving meats and fish, are now the chief

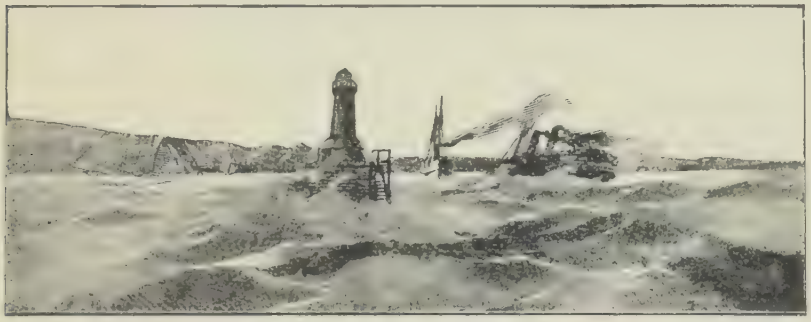
occupations of the people of Prince Edward Island. It is thickly populated, and hundreds of young people leave it every year to find work in the wide world beyond the seas that shut in their island home.

In the early days of French settlement, Ile St. Jean, as Prince Edward Island was then called, formed part of Acadia; and we read that in 1663 it was granted by the Company of New France to Sieur Doublet and two companions, who used it as a fishing station. When in 1713 the English obtained possession of the mainland of Acadia, some of the French inhabitants crossed to the island, and a town called Port la Joie was built near the mouth of Charlottetown harbor. During the troubles that followed, other Acadians escaped from their English conquerors and made homes for themselves in the wilderness. After the capture of Louisbourg, Lord Rollo was sent to receive the submission of Ile St. Jean and to carry off its inhabitants as prisoners of war. He succeeded in capturing but seven hundred of the four thousand French on the island. Most of the others must have found some means of escape, for when Captain Holland, who was sent by the British government to survey the island, arrived in 1764 only about thirty families remained. Many of the exiles, however, returned to their old homes, and became prosperous and happy under English rule.

Captain Holland performed his duty with great thoroughness. He sent to England maps of the island and plans of various parts of it, with a full report of its climate, soil and native productions.

Dividing the Island. He divided it into three parts and chose sites for the chief towns—Georgetown, on Cardigan Bay, in the eastern division; Charlottetown, on Hillsborough Bay, in the centre; and Princeton, on Richmond Bay, in the western division. The only town that refused to thrive on the site chosen was Princeton. Summerside, on Bedeque Bay, on the opposite side of the island has become the chief town in Prince County.

In 1765 the Earl of Egmont, the first lord of the Admiralty, asked that Prince Edward Island should be granted to him and a number of associates, to be settled, fortified and governed by them in the feudal fashion. The British government refused his request, but with strange inconsistency caused the whole island to be divided into sixty-seven townships which, with the exception of three, were in 1767 granted by lot to gentlemen who had claims upon the government. The conditions upon which these lots were to be held were that a certain yearly rent was to be paid to the Crown and that the land must be settled in a given time. One hundred acres in each township



SUMMERSIDE HARBOR, P. E. I.

were to be set apart for a clergyman and thirty for a schoolmaster. Few of the proprietors made any attempt to fulfil these conditions. They did not come to the island themselves, nor did they send settlers.

When the lands of the colony were granted to the proprietors, it was under the government of Nova Scotia, but in 1770 they had influence enough to induce the British authorities to place it under a separate government. At that time there were one hundred and fifty families and five proprietors on the island. The first governor, Walter Patterson, was himself a proprietor. Representative government was introduced in 1773. Some of the first colonists were able to buy their land from the proprietors, but most of them rented their farms. The rents were small, but

it often happened that the poor tenant who perhaps had but a few shillings left when his passage-money was paid, found it a great hardship, after providing a frugal living for his family, to gather together even the small rental for the farm which his own labor had made valuable. Sometimes the absentee proprietor allowed the tenant to fall in arrears and then demanded payment on such short notice that the poor man had to sacrifice his horse or cow or perhaps seed for his next year's crop, to save himself from being thrown into prison for debt. The salaries of the governor and other officials were to have been paid out of a fund raised from the rents which the proprietors engaged to pay to the Crown, but so few of them paid these quitrents that the Imperial parliament was forced to grant the money for the civil list.

As early as 1773 the House of Assembly passed an act giving the courts authority to enforce the payment of the proprietors' quitrents. Governor Patterson, acting on this law and disregarding directions received from the home government, ordered the sale of the lands of some of the most delinquent of the landlords. The proprietors had influence enough, not only to obtain the governor's recall, but the repeal of the law of 1773 and the disallowance of an act passed afterwards. From time to time efforts were made to settle the land question. As years passed on, there were many who declared that as the non-resident proprietors had never fulfilled the conditions of the original grants, their lands were justly forfeited and should be taken back by the Crown. Others considered a fair price for the lands should be fixed and the proprietors compelled to sell. Many believed that as the proprietary system was established by the British government, England should either grant the colony the money or give security for a loan to be used to buy the lands from the proprietors at their own price. The estates would then be sold to the tenants at a fair valuation, enabling them to become freeholders. That this could be done, the colonial government

The Land Question.

proved by purchasing two of the estates and allowing the tenants on them to buy their farms. But every attempt to settle the land question was frustrated owing to the influence of the proprietors, and it was not till Prince Edward Island became a province of the Dominion that a settlement was finally reached.

Early in the revolutionary war the Hon. Mr. Calbeck, administrator of the government, Wright, the surveyor general, and other officials were seized by two American war-vessels and carried before General Washington. The General disapproved of the capture and ordered the officials to be set free and their captors dismissed from their commands. Troops were stationed on the island, and some of the German soldiers sent by England to fight the rebellious colonists, were forced by heavy gales to take shelter in Charlottetown and spend the winter there. Some of these soldiers returned as settlers to the island after their discharge. In 1798 the name of the colony was changed to Prince Edward Island, in honor of Edward, Duke of Kent, then stationed at Halifax as commander-in-chief of the British forces.

In 1803 a large settlement was made near Point Prim by the Earl of Selkirk. Other immigrants followed, and little by little the colony became the home of a sturdy population. That they were not unworthy of their British origin we learn from their action when a tyrannical governor, Charles Douglas Smith, attempted to rule without the aid of his assembly and to make use of the forms of law for the oppression of the people. They called upon the sheriff to summon meetings of the inhabitants, at one of which an address to the king was framed, charging the governor with many serious offences. This document was sent to England by a Mr. Stewart, in spite of the attempt of the governor to arrest him. Governor Smith was recalled, and Colonel Ready arrived in 1824 to take his place.

Complaints Sent to England.

The Roman Catholics of Prince Edward Island in the early times could not take part in the government nor could they hold

any public office. In 1825 they petitioned the House of Assembly to give them equal rights with their Protestant fellow subjects, but the house refused their prayer. In 1830 the British parliament passed the Catholic Emancipation Bill, and the legislature of the little colony, following its example, granted to the Roman Catholics those rights which should never have been denied them.

It was not till 1851 that, owing chiefly to the efforts of George Coles, a man who, without any advantages of birth or education, won for himself the leadership of the House of Assembly, responsible government was introduced into Prince Edward Island. In his efforts he was ably assisted by Edward Whalen, the talented editor of the *Examiner* newspaper. To George Coles also, the island was indebted for the passing of the Free School Act, a measure which brought the means of education within the reach of all. A Normal School was established in 1856, and a few years later the Prince of Wales College took the place of the old Central Academy, the first school for higher education to be opened in the colony.

In 1854 the Reciprocity Treaty came into force in Prince Edward Island as in the other colonies of British North America. The open markets of the United States, the industry and growing intelligence of the farmers, the activity of the ship building trade and the enterprise of the merchants brought about a period of progress and prosperity. The abrogation of the treaty eleven years later brings us to the eve of Confederation.

To promote the Maritime Union a conference of the leading men of the three provinces was held in Charlottetown in September, 1864, and from this arose the movement that ended in the formation of the Dominion of Canada, 1867.

Looking Back. Before closing our review, let us look back and see something of the state of the inhabitants of the colony at the beginning of the last half of the nineteenth century. There were in Prince Edward Island several large settlements of Highlanders where the older men

spoke very broken English and the women nothing but Gaelic. The younger people and the children who attended the district school talked English fluently enough. Many of these were the descendants of Scottish Covenanters who had been driven to the woods and hills by the persecutions of the Stuart kings. Like their ancestors they were marked by strict views of parental discipline, reverence for the Bible and the Sabbath, and hatred of all forms of light amusement. Differing little from these except in their manner of worship, were the remnants of some Roman Catholic clan who had found a home in the new colony. Their grave faces and quiet manners bore evidence of the years when their people had been shunned and suspected by the very Reformers who valued their own liberty of conscience so dearly.

The Irish immigrants more recently arrived were still busy clearing the land or cultivating their little crops of potatoes or patches of wheat among the charred stumps. Poor they may have been, yet the wearied or benighted wayfarer would be welcomed in the richest of brogues to the best the rude cabin contained. These settlers were novices in the art of cultivating large farms, but mother-wit came to their aid, and a quarter of a century had scarcely passed before comfortable homesteads and well-tilled fields took the place of the rude clearing and its background of thick woods.

Less frequent were the English or Lowland Scotch settlements where men, whose business was agriculture, and who had brought with them a little capital, selected their farms with care and applied to the tilling of them the skill which knowledge and experience alone can give. Here neatness and thrift left their marks everywhere—from the snug wood pile and the spotless dairy to the neat stile that crossed the well-kept fence or the trim hedge.

At Rustico, at Miscouche, at Tracadie and many other places the Acadians continued to live together in little villages.



ACADIAN WOMAN.

Here the active, dark-eyed women were dressed in the striped home-spun skirt, dark bodice, snowy neckerchief and close-fitting cap worn by their French ancestors. Around the doors were troops of merry children, whose sturdy fathers would answer the enquiries of the traveller in broken English, helped by many an expressive gesture. If the visitor could speak French he would soon be at home among a people who for more than two centuries had preserved in wonderful purity the language of their race. The neighboring chapel and fine convent showed that these descendants of the Acadians cherished the old faith.

Many of the oldest and finest settlements were those of the sons and grandsons of the United Empire Loyalists. Their broad acres sloped to the water's edge, and orchards had grown up around their commodious dwellings. Perhaps in a corner of one of these fields, in the shade of a grove, we should find the summer encampment of a group of Micmac Indians busily weaving strong baskets or fashioning the tubs and firkins needed by the capable housewives of the neighborhood. These were paid for in the pork or flour which the children of the forest learned to use instead of the rapidly disappearing game. But great changes have taken place among the people of the island since the period on which we have been looking back. The railway, the telegraph, the spread of education, the constant mingling of different classes of people in schools, at college, in political, agricultural and social gatherings and in business, have combined to remove divisions between races and sects and to give this island province a high place among the sisters of confederation.

CHAPTER XXXV.

NEWFOUNDLAND.

Although Newfoundland is not a part of the Dominion, a history of Canada is not complete without a brief account of the events that have happened there.

In the reign of Queen Elizabeth the spirit of maritime adventure awoke in England. Drake sailed around the world. Martin Frobisher sought for the North-west Passage and in 1583 Sir Humphrey Gilbert set out to found the most ancient of England's colonies. The expedition was well equipped but it was not successful, and the vessel which was carrying its brave leader back to England sank amid the stormy waves of the Atlantic. His last words: "Cheer up, lads! we are as near Heaven by sea as by land," have given courage to many another seaman in peril. Forty years later Lord Baltimore planted a little colony on the peninsula of Avalon, on the south-eastern extremity of Newfoundland.

Adventurous Men.

For hundreds of years there were few inhabitants on the island, though the waters around her coast swarmed in summer with a busy population from many countries, who came to catch the codfish on their feeding grounds called the Banks of Newfoundland. Order was maintained among these hardy visitors in a rude fashion. The first British captain to reach the "Banks" in spring was called the "Fishing Admiral," and by a rule of the Admiralty all other fishermen must obey his commands for that season.

Finding how profitable the fishing trade was, and fearing that if Newfoundland became a large colony its inhabitants would claim these fisheries, the English merchants persuaded Charles II. to send away the few settlers living in the colony.

In the meantime the French had obtained permission to dry their fish on the shores of the island and had planted a settlement at Placentia Bay. The Canadian adventurer, D'Iberville, captured the principal town, St. John's, and ravaged most of the English settlements in 1696. While by the Treaty of Utrecht the French gave up all claims to the colony of Newfoundland, they obtained the right to establish fishing stations and to dry fish on a large extent of the shore of the colony. The disputes between the French fishermen and the people of the island have greatly hindered its progress.



LE MOYNE D'IBERVILLE.

In the years when the inhabitants of European countries were engaged in the wars with Napoleon, colonists flocked to Newfoundland. Under the protection of England's flag they gathered the harvest of the sea and prospered. But the great fish merchants of St. John's discouraged agriculture, and it was not till 1811 that a wise governor, Sir John Harvey, brought about a period of settlement and progress. In 1854 the province received responsible government. Four years later the first Atlantic cable was laid between the island and Ireland. About the same time valuable copper mines were discovered.

Two delegates from Newfoundland sat at the Quebec Conference, but its inhabitants refused to join the Canadian Confederation. Many times since, negotiations have taken place, looking to the union of Newfoundland with the Dominion, but so far they have been unsuccessful.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

BRITISH COLUMBIA.

WHETHER we consider its vast extent, the grandeur of its scenery or its immense natural resources, British Columbia is a wonderful province. At the beginning of the twentieth century it is still the home of the explorer. Civilized man has only partially occupied its southern, western and to a smaller extent its northern border. Many of the valleys of the interior and the banks of the fiords or bays that penetrate its rocky coasts are still, as they have been for ages past, the home of tribes differing widely from each other in appearance, in customs and in language. Whence they have come is not known, though the general opinion is that their ancestors crossed the Pacific Ocean from the opposite shores of Asia. Many of them have great skill in carving and in weaving. The coast Indians are clever boatbuilders and expert fishermen, while all are adepts at killing the fur-bearing animals of sea and land. Although, like the other native tribes of North America, the British Columbia Indians are dwindling away before the advance of civilization, they are more ready than some others to learn the occupations and adopt the customs of white men. None of them have a written language, although the carvings on the hideous monuments they call "totem poles" show that they can in a rude and imperfect way communicate to succeeding generations some account of the deeds of their ancestors. They have many curious legends, and they believe in a future life. All the coast Indians were great warriors, and many were cannibals and practised degrading and cruel rites in years gone by. Spanish explorers were the first to tell of a visit to British Columbia, but its history really begins with the coming, in 1778,

Extent and Grandeur.

of James Cook to Nootka Sound, on the west coast of Vancouver Island. This great navigator came to discover, if possible, a north-west passage between the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans. Not succeeding in his first attempt, he went to spend the winter in the Sandwich Islands, and there he was murdered by the natives. His ships, however, returned to England and brought glowing accounts of the rich furs to be found on the north-west coast of America. Soon many fur trading ships, chiefly British and American, sought the coast, and named some of its islands and many of its bays and straits. In 1788 one of these fur-traders, Meares, attempted to make a settlement at Nootka Sound. The

Noted Navigators.



NOOTKA SOUND.

Spaniards seized his buildings and captured some of his ships. This exploit brought England and Spain to the verge of war, but in the end both parties agreed to abandon Nootka. The Spaniards were to atone for their insult to the British flag and to pay Meares for his losses. The whole western coast of North America north of the territory already occupied by Spain was to be henceforth free for settlement to both nations. Captain Vancouver was sent with three ships of war to the Pacific coast to see that the Spaniards kept their promise and to find, if possible, a passage across the continent of North America. He spent three years on the coast and when he went home in 1795

he took with him charts of the whole seaboard from Cape Flattery to Alaska, including Puget Sound. Accurate as Vancouver's surveys were in other respects, he failed to discover the two great rivers of the Pacific slope, the Columbia and the Fraser.



ALEXANDER MACKENZIE.

In the meantime Alexander Mackenzie had succeeded in finding his way overland by the Peace River Pass and across the country to the Pacific Ocean, which he reached on the 18th of July, 1793. Mackenzie was an official of the North-West Company of Montreal. That enterprising body very soon sent fur-traders to the newly discovered country to explore it and establish trading-posts. Fraser in 1806 entered the northern part of the province, spent two years in building forts, and then, in 1808, descended the Fraser to its mouth in spite of formidable dangers and difficulties. The region from the valleys of the Findlay and the Parsnip to the present district of Lillooet, received the name of New Caledonia, from the first fur-traders, most of whom were natives of the old world Caledonia, or Scotland, "land of the mountain and the flood."

David Thompson was the first to establish the fur-trade among the mountains through which the Columbia and its tributaries wind, and at whose feet lie their beautiful lake expansions. To this region he gave the name of Kootenay. It was this explorer, too, who founded the town of Kamloops, on the forks of the river which now bears his name—the Thompson. One of the purposes that Thompson had in view when he crossed the mountains was to explore the Columbia to its source and establish a trading post at its mouth. But when in 1812 he reached the Columbia by its Spokane branch, he discovered that

the American explorers, Lewis and Clarke, had been there before him, and at its mouth he found Astoria, a fur-trading establishment, built by a company at whose head was a rich German citizen of New York, John Jacob Astor.

During the nine years after Thompson's visit to Astoria, the North-West Company established many posts on the Pacific slope. The Company was able, near the close of the war of 1812, to purchase Fort Astoria, so that from the Big Bend of the Columbia to the Pacific it controlled the trade of the great river of Oregon. Fort Vancouver, on the north bank of the Columbia, near the mouth of the Williamette, became the headquarters of the new Hudson's Bay Company formed in 1821 by the union of the North-West and the old Hudson's Bay companies.

Under Governor Simpson, afterward Sir George Simpson, the Hudson's Bay Company prosecuted the fur trade with renewed vigor. From time to time, little bands of men with, perhaps, the wives of one or two of them, came down the rivers in boats. Besides their freight of human beings with the necessary food and clothing, these boats carried one or two small cannon, rifles and ammunition, tools for building, blankets, knives, cloth, beads and other merchandise for the Indian trade. Arrived at a spot suitable for the Company's post—perhaps a bluff overlooking the junction of two rivers, some sheltered cove near its mouth or a fertile plain beside a fine harbor—the men unloaded their boats and proceeded to cut down trees and erect a strong building to serve the purpose of a dwelling, storehouse and fort. Around it they raised a high stockade within which the cannon were mounted. The rude furniture necessary for immediate use was made and the piles of goods were neatly arranged. The Indians who came to see what was going on were carefully watched but kindly treated. When all was finished, the workmen and boatmen rowed away, leaving in their wilderness home a factor or trader with a clerk and two or three workmen. In some such way the

Beginnings of the Fur-trade.

fur-trade was established throughout the length and breadth of the province, and in a great part of the territory now occupied by the States of Washington and Oregon. The neighborhood was cautiously but thoroughly examined, and the results of the observations carefully recorded in the journals of the fort. The Company's agents took great pains to establish friendly relations with the Indians and to learn their language, while at the same time the savages were impressed with the power and wisdom of the great Company and its officials. The goods were carefully

No XIX.

STANDARD of TRADE at the ſeveral **FACTORIES** of the ***HUDSON's BAY*** **COMPANY**, ſubſiſting this preſent Year 1748,

NAMES of GOODS.	ARO		MRO		YF		CRO	
	Quantity valued	Beaver	Quantity valued	Beaver	Quantity valued	Beaver	Quantity valued	Beaver
Beads, large Milk - - - - - Pounds	$\frac{1}{3}$	1	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .
of Colours - - - - -	$\frac{3}{4}$	1	$\frac{3}{4}$	1	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .
of all Sorts - - - - -	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1	1	2
Kettles, Braſs, of all Sizes - - - -	1	1	1	1	1	$1\frac{1}{2}$	1	$1\frac{1}{2}$
Black-Lead - - - - - - - -	1	1	1	1	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .
Powder - - - - - - - -	$1\frac{1}{2}$	1	$1\frac{1}{2}$	1	1	1	1	1
Shot - - - - - - - - -	5	1	5	1	4	1	4	1
Sugar, Brown - - - - - -	2	1	2	1	. .	. .	. .	.
Tobacco, *Brazil* - - - - - -	1	1	1	1	$\frac{3}{4}$	1	$\frac{3}{4}$	1
Leaf - - - - - -	$1\frac{1}{2}$	1	$1\frac{1}{2}$	1	1	1	1	1
Roll - - - - - - -	$1\frac{1}{2}$	1	$1\frac{1}{2}$	1	1	1	1	1
Thread - - - - - - -	1	2	1	2	1	1	1	1
Vermilion - - - - - - Ounces	$1\frac{1}{2}$	1	$1\frac{1}{2}$	1	1	1	1	1
Brandy, *Engliſh* - - - - Gallons	1	4	1	4	1	4	1	4
Waters, White or Red - - - - -	1	4	1	4	1	4	1	4

Broad-

FAC-SIMILE OF COMPANY'S STANDARD OF TRADE.

marked and the factor and his clerk prepared the books in which were kept the accounts of the fort. During the long winter nights much time was spent in reading over and over again the few books to be found in the fort. Thus the young clerk accumulated a store of knowledge which many a modern lad with what seem far greater advantages, might envy.

When the spring brought loads of furs to the fort they were bought and paid for according to a fixed tariff of which the unit

of value was a beaver skin. The value of the goods sold was small compared with that of the furs bought, but the difficulties of transportation through thousands of miles of wilderness were very great, and returns were long in coming.

Trifling Pay for Furs.

At first, the Indians who came to the forts to trade were plentifully supplied with rum, but it was early seen that strong drink changed the savages into madmen at the time, and in the end unfitted them for the occupation of trapping and hunting. Hence, from motives of self interest as well as humanity, the Company's officers were forbidden to sell liquor to the Indians. In some of the forts, as in Vancouver, Kamloops or Victoria, there were many buildings and a large company of men; but sometimes a single man remained in charge of a small post. It is not surprising that these exiles sought society among the Indians and sometimes took wives from among the daughters of the forest. When their hunting grounds had become a colony and cities had grown up on the sites of their forts, the wonder is rather that they so preserved the manners of their early home and so increased their knowledge, that, after spending half a lifetime in the wilderness, many of them were fitted to take a leading part in public affairs.

The Hudson's Bay Company did not confine their efforts to the establishment of fur trading stations. In the valley of the Williamette and at the forts near Puget Sound, the Company had in 1841 fine farms where sufficient produce was raised to supply not only their own stations on the northern seacoast and in the interior, but to export produce to the Russian Fur Company of Alaska. So far the North West Company and their successors, the Hudson's Bay Company, had made the only permanent settlements on the North west coast; but in course of time numbers of immigrants from the Eastern States began to arrive in Oregon.

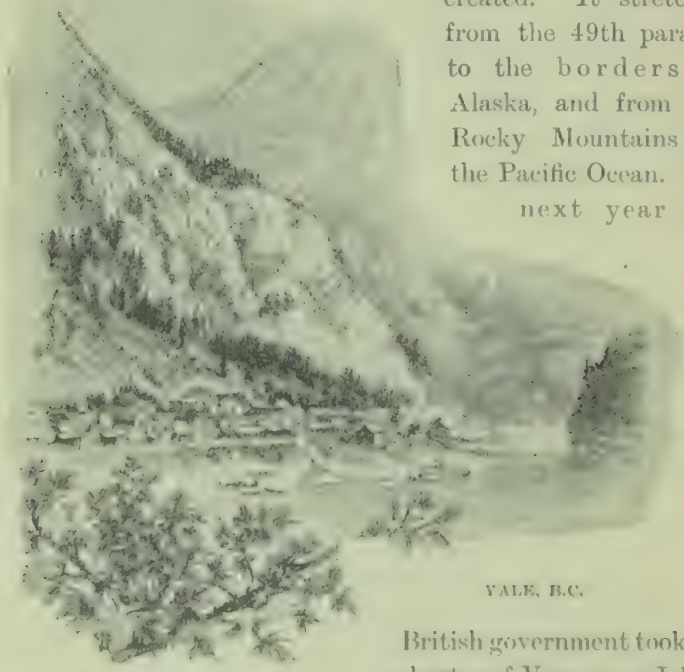
In 1818 and again in 1826, a treaty had been made in which

England and the United States agreed that the subjects of both nations might trade and settle anywhere in the great wilderness north of California and south of Alaska. At the same time both nations knew that the day would come when the land must be divided between them. That day had now arrived. The British wanted their territory to include the valley of the Lower Columbia. The United States claimed all the Pacific slope to the boundary of Alaska, and there were threats of war. A military governor was sent to Canada. In 1846, however, the boundary was settled by the Oregon treaty. The southern boundary of British North America was extended along the 49th parallel to the Pacific Ocean, and then bent south a little so as to leave the whole of Vancouver Island to Great Britain.

During the Oregon dispute, the Hudson's Bay officials saw that Fort Vancouver was no longer a suitable place for their principal trade depôt. In the summer of 1843 Fort Camosun was built by chief factor Douglas on the southern extremity of Vancouver Island. The name of the post was soon changed to Fort Victoria, and it became the company's headquarters. In 1849 the island of Vancouver was granted to the Hudson's Bay Company for the purposes of colonization.

The colony grew very slowly at first, for although the fur-traders were excellent business men, they either did not wish settlers to come into the country or did not know how to treat them when they came. Beyond the Company's own farms, little improvement took place in Vancouver Island till gold was discovered on the Fraser in 1857. In the previous year, representative government had, by the command of the British colonial office, been introduced into the little colony, but the chief power was in the hands of Governor Douglas, and, on the whole, he exercised it wisely. No sooner had the news of the discovery of gold got abroad than the territory which had been the haunt of wild beasts was eagerly sought by thousands of gold-seekers. Victoria, the nearest port to the diggings, became

in the summer of 1858 a city of tents. At Yale, the head of navigation on the Fraser, near which rich deposits of gold had been discovered, a town sprang up. The British government hastened to take possession of the valuable territory which till now it had been content to leave in the occupation of the great fur company. In 1858 the Crown colony of British Columbia was created. It stretched from the 49th parallel to the borders of Alaska, and from the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific Ocean. The next year the British government took the charter of Vancouver Island from the Hudson's Bay Company and it also became a Crown colony. For eight years the colonies remained under separate governments, New Westminster being the capital of the mainland colony and Victoria that of the island. During the greater part of that time, Governor Douglas presided over the governments of both colonies. He was succeeded on the island by Governor Kennedy and on the mainland by Sir Frederic Seymour.



YALE, B.C.

In the first mining operations in British Columbia there were wonderful successes and terrible failures. The greater number of the gold-seekers who came in 1858 flocked back in 1859. The tide of immigration ebbed and flowed until 1861, when the discoveries of gold in Cariboo justified the wildest hopes of the miners. But the sands of the creeks of the Cariboo country were in their turn robbed of their treasure, and a period of depression set in. In 1866 the island and the mainland were united again under one government. British Columbia was chosen as the name of the united colony, but Victoria was selected as its capital. In 1869 Governor Seymour was succeeded by the last of the colonial governors of British Columbia, Sir Anthony Musgrave. The new governor was an administrator of much tact and wisdom. He helped to bring about responsible government. The Imperial Government was anxious that British Columbia should join the Canadian Confederation, and Canada was ready to welcome a Pacific province and grant it liberal terms. The colony was deeply in debt and times were hard. A delegation was, in May of 1870, sent to Ottawa, the terms of Confederation were agreed upon, and in 1871 British Columbia became a province of the Dominion of Canada.

Victoria the Capital.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

BEFORE CONFEDERATION.

In the middle of the last century there were in British America the detached colonies of Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island and Newfoundland; but what are now the rich and fertile provinces of Manitoba, Alberta and Saskatchewan, and the districts and territories of the North-West, were an unbroken prairie, save where, around Fort Garry on the Red River, a few Scotch and French settlers and a number of half breeds made their homes in the vast wilderness, or where, at long intervals, the fur trading companies had planted their rude and solitary stations.

An Unbroken Prairie.

Beyond the mountains, indeed, the discovery of gold on the Fraser River and its tributaries had given birth to the colony of British Columbia; but the diamond fields of South Africa do not seem more distant to the Canadian of to-day than did Yale and Cariboo to the people of Quebec and the Maritime Provinces in 1860.

Each of the colonies regarded the others as foreign countries, and treated them as such. The miners and fishermen of Nova Scotia could not buy the potatoes and oats of Prince Edward Island without paying duty on them, while the island custom-house officials levied toll on the apples of the Annapolis valley and the coal of Pictou or Sydney. The wheat of Upper Canada or the manufactures of Lower Canada could not be freely exchanged for the fish or the minerals of the Maritime Provinces. As we have seen, the Reciprocity Treaty of 1854 had opened the ports of the United States to the produce of the

British colonies, so that Boston, Portland, New York and Baltimore, and not the Canadian cities, were looked upon as their best markets.

Those were the days of wooden vessels. Near the banks of the St. John, the Miramichi, the Ottawa, the St. Maurice and many smaller streams, hardy bands of lumbermen spent the bright cold days of winter in cutting down trees. When the March winds and April rains had melted the ice of the rivers,



LUMBER SHANTIES IN WINTER.

the logs were borne swiftly down the swollen current. Where, as in Prince Edward Island, there were few large rivers, strong teams of oxen dragged the logs to the seashore. By the mouths of the rivers or on the shores of the bays could be heard the cheerful sound of the ship-builders' work as they fashioned the keel or smoothed the shapely spars of many a good ship or trim schooner. Some of these vessels found ready sale in Europe or the United States, and others were used in domestic or foreign trade.

The Ship-Builders.

Farmers still sowed their grain by hand, and in the remoter districts reaped and threshed it without much aid from machinery. Many of their daughters spent the long days of summer in spinning on the big wheel, though others (less thrifty it was thought) sent the wool to the factory that had lately been built in the neighboring town. The hand-loom filled its accustomed corner in the old houses, and "drugget" dresses were worn by housewife and schoolgirl. Country children still enjoyed the delights of berry-picking on holidays, when they followed the bee to the field, and departed with him in the glory of the evening sunset, carrying bowls or pitchers heaped high with the fragrant fruit. The "Creamery" had not then relieved the farmer's wife of the toil of butter making or removed the cool dairy from the shade of the tree. A rail road journey was a thing to be planned beforehand and talked about for a long time afterwards, and the stage coach had not disappeared even from many of the thickly settled districts. The telephone had not been invented, and the latest wonder of science was the Atlantic cable.

In 1861 the Civil War in the United States commenced. Many young men from British North America had obtained employment in the busy cities of the New England States. They were affected by the enthusiasm of their fellow workmen, and numbers of them joined the volunteers who answered the first call to arms to preserve the Union. For this reason, as well as because it had an influence on Canadian affairs, we will give a very short sketch of the causes of the war and of those incidents which affected England and Canada.

In the Southern States, where sugar, cotton and tobacco were the chief products, most of the work was done by negro slaves. In the Northern States there were no slaves. Thirty years before the war men and women began to feel most deeply that slavery was wrong and should be abolished. They formed societies for its abolition, and their members spoke and wrote

earnestly against the traffic in human beings. But the people of the Southern States had grown rich and prosperous through slave labour. They were very angry with the abolitionists and they determined not only to preserve slavery where it already existed, but to introduce it into the western territories. In 1860, a President, Abraham Lincoln, was elected, who was known to be an enemy to slavery and who would use all his influence to keep it out of the Western States about to be formed. South Carolina declared her right to secede from the Union, and persuaded ten of the Southern States to join with her in forming a new republic or confederation under Jefferson Davis. The other twenty-two states declared that it was unlawful for any state to leave the Union, and resolved to conquer the rebels. A terrible war then began, and it was only after four years of hard fighting that the South was forced to yield.

North and South.

England recognized the government of President Davis. In 1862 two Confederate ambassadors named Mason and Slidell took passage for London on the *Trent*, a British mail steamer. This ship was stopped by a United States captain, and Mason and Slidell were captured. Though the prisoners were afterwards released, England resented the insult to her flag. On the other hand, the British allowed a war-ship named the *Alabama* and other smaller vessels to be built in England to be used by the friends of the South. These vessels cruised the Atlantic and destroyed many United States trading ships. Canadians themselves did not always see that the laws of neutrality were strictly observed. Not only did refugees from the South find shelter in the colony, but they were allowed to make and carry out plans for the injury of the North. In 1864 two United States vessels were plundered on Lake Erie, and a number of rash young men crossed to the frontier town of Saint Albans in Vermont and robbed three banks there. Although the robbers were arrested in Montreal they were not punished.

Sea Robbers.

The government of the United States was indignant at what it regarded as the unfriendly conduct of England; and when, in May, 1865, the Union forces were victorious and the war was over, the feeling against England was so strong that it was resolved to abrogate the Reciprocity Treaty which had been in force since 1854 and which had contributed so much to the prosperity both of the Colonies and the Republic. Another lamentable result of the ill feeling in the United States against England was the invasion of Canada by the Fenians. The Fenians were a secret society of Irishmen banded together for the purpose of freeing Ireland from British rule. A great many Irishmen had served in the Civil War. Some of them were Fenians. A number of these men prepared to invade Canada. The United States authorities did not interfere to prevent the invasion, and in May

"Fenian Raids."



O'NEIL'S HEADQUARTERS DURING FENIAN RAID.

1866, General O'Neil crossed the frontier at Niagara and took possession of Fort Erie. A force consisting of a detachment of regulars and a body of volunteers was sent to dislodge him. The volunteers arrived first, and by a mistake their officers advanced toward Fort Erie before Colonel Peacock arrived with

the regulars. The first day of June the Canadian force, which consisted mostly of young men, made a gallant attack on the invaders at Ridgeway, but was compelled to retire after suffering considerable loss. O'Neil nevertheless did not wait the arrival of the regulars, but returned the same night into United States territory. A beautiful monument in Queen's Park, Toronto, recalls the memory of the brave lads who fell at Ridgeway in defence of England's flag. General O'Neil again invaded Canada near Quebec on May 25, 1870, but was soon driven back to the United States. In 1871 he attempted to enter Manitoba, but the feeling of irritation against England had been allayed, and O'Neil was arrested by a United States officer. This was the end of Fenianism in Canada.

O'Neil Arrested.

Canada still mourns, however, the loss inflicted upon her through the murder of the Hon. D'Arcy McGee, an Irishman who had made Canada his adopted home. He was a member of the Canadian Parliament, one of the Fathers of Confederation, and distinguished both as orator and poet. But he had incurred the anger of the Fenians, whose violent methods he would not sanction, and on the night of April 7th, 1868, he was shot in Ottawa as he was returning from the Parliament House. The young country could ill spare so gifted and loyal a subject.

The jealousy between Upper and Lower Canada, the dread of invasion from the re-united republic, the necessity of freedom of trade and better means of communication between the different colonies, all had their part in bringing about the union of the colonies of British America. The Union Act of 1840 provided that Upper Canada and Lower Canada should be equally represented in the United Parliament; but as time went on, the population of the western province so increased that they thought it unjust that a smaller number of men of a different race and religion should have the power to prevent

them from transacting their public affairs in their own way. George Brown, a newspaper editor of Scottish birth and a man of great strength and energy, led the Reform party in their demand for representation according to population. He was opposed by the great body of French Canadians and by the Conservatives from Upper Canada, led by John A. Macdonald. To remedy the evils of unequal representation, a plan had been devised by which every act must be passed not only by a majority of the whole House, but by a majority of the members from each province. But this supposed cure, which was called the Double Majority, only added another to the ills of the Canadian Government. Useful acts could be defeated and necessary public improvements prevented by the jealousy of a section of either province.

George Brown.

As time went on, the difficulties of the political situation increased. In two years there were five changes of ministry, and at last, in 1864, it was found that government could no longer be carried on under the Constitution. This is what was known as the Dead-lock. Yet patriotism and public spirit were still to be found among Canadians. For twelve years George Brown and John A. Macdonald had been the leaders of public opinion in Upper Canada, while George Etienne Cartier was the foremost politician in Lower Canada. At the time of the Dead-lock the government was led by John A. Macdonald and Sir E. P. Taché. Party warfare was in those days carried on with a heat and bitterness rare in our time, and no politicians had ever denounced one another more fiercely than had George Brown and John A. Macdonald. To Brown belongs the honor of first laying aside personal feelings, and proposing that he and his friends should unite with their political opponents to bring about such a change in the mode of governing Canada as would allow her to become greater and more prosperous than ever before. Macdonald and Cartier gladly accepted the offer of their old

The Dead-Lock.

opponent, and a coalition government was formed under the leadership of Sir E. P. Taché, whose purpose was to bring about a federal union of the two Canadas, and, if possible, of all the provinces of British North America. In this union the central government should have charge of all such matters as concerned the whole country, while each province should retain control of its own local affairs. The plan was known to be agreeable to the Imperial authorities, who were at that time



PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS, QUEBEC.

anxious to be relieved of the responsibility of defending a number of scattered dependencies, each of which insisted upon having the fullest measure of self-government.

Maritime Convention.

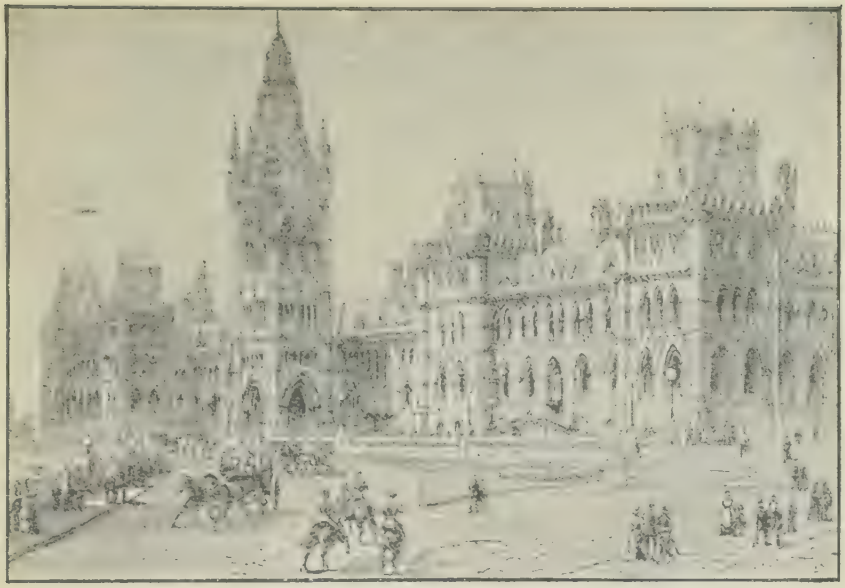
The provinces of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island had, during the same year, sent delegates to a convention held in Charlottetown in September, 1864, to deliberate on their own legislative union. A delegation from Canada, consisting of some of her most noted politicians, asked and obtained permission to attend the meetings of the Maritime Convention. They spoke in favor of the larger union of all the British North

American colonies, and persuaded the convention to adjourn their meeting and attend another to be held in Quebec in October. This famous Confederation Convention was held in the Parliament Buildings of Quebec, within sight of the field where, little more than a century before, Englishmen and Frenchmen had fought so fiercely for the possession of Canada.

During the next few weeks resolutions were adopted, most of which were afterwards accepted by the British Parliament and embodied in the British North America Act — which forms the present constitution of the Dominion of Canada. Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia were the first to accept the new form of government. Provision was made for the admission of the other colonies and of the provinces that should hereafter be formed from the vast territory of British North America. The islands of Prince Edward and Newfoundland preferred for the time to remain in political as well as natural isolation. A delegation of some of the most influential men in Canada was sent to London to assist the imperial government in framing the British North America Act, which became law in March, 1867, and by Royal proclamation the Dominion of Canada was formed on the First of July, 1867.

B. N. A. Act.

The people of Nova Scotia had not been consulted when its government engaged to join the Confederation, and an agitation against it, led by the Hon. Joseph Howe, was begun. Howe was sent to England by the anti-Confederates to ask the Imperial government to release Nova Scotia from the Confederation. Eloquent as he was, Howe's mission was a failure. He then gave up the struggle, Nova Scotia accepted the better terms which the Dominion government offered, and the great Reformer became a member of the Dominion Cabinet.



PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS, OTTAWA.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

CONFEDERATION.

How were the provinces which formed the Dominion to be governed, and what changes had the British North America Act brought about? These are the questions to which an answer will be attempted in this short chapter. The government of the Dominion of Canada was to consist of a Governor-General, a Senate and a House of Commons. The governor-general represents the sovereign and is appointed by the Crown. He usually holds office for five years. Although the head of the government, the governor-general performs no public act without the advice of his ministry. The Senate or Upper House consists of eighty members appointed for life by the governor-general-in-council. The Senate assists in making the laws and may introduce any bill except those which have to do with the raising or spending of money.

The House of Commons is elected by the people. Quebec always returns sixty-five members and each of the other provinces sends a number of representatives bearing the same proportion to sixty-five as its population does to that of Quebec. A census of the whole Dominion is taken once in ten years and the representation is arranged according to the returns of this census. By this plan the boon, so long contended for, of representation according to population was obtained. By the British North America Act, all those affairs which concern the whole country are placed under the control of the Federal government, while each province has its own parliament for the management of its own affairs, presided over by a lieutenant governor appointed by the governor-general-in-council.

Taking the Census.

The matters that come under the control of the Federal or Dominion government have been grouped into twelve departments: Justice, Marine and Fisheries, Militia and Defence, Postal Affairs, Agriculture, Public Works, Finance, Interior and Indian Affairs, Railways and Canals, Customs and Inland Revenue. Each of these branches of the public service is placed under the charge of a cabinet minister, who is responsible to the people for the way its affairs are conducted. Each minister is assisted by a staff of civil servants, who, once appointed, hold office as long as they do their duty and are fit for their work. Their old age is provided for by a superannuation fund, to which all contribute. The ministers of course hold office only as long as the government to which they belong retains the confidence of the people. The Premier may call to the cabinet any member of his party other than the heads of departments.

Free trade was established throughout the Dominion by Confederation. The products and manufactures of one province could thenceforth be introduced free of duty and sold in any other province. On the other hand, the public debt and commerce of the country fell under the control of the Federal

government. It followed from this that all the money raised by the customs duties went into the Federal treasury. Before Confederation these duties formed the chief source of revenue for the several provinces. The largest share of the public debt for which the Federal government was now responsible had been contracted by Canada; and though the great canals and other public works were worth more than what was spent upon them, it was felt that they were of more direct benefit to the provinces on the St. Lawrence than to those on the Atlantic coast. It was therefore agreed that the Federal government should pay certain sums called subsidies from the common treasury, to defray the expenses of the provincial governments—the amount to be given to each province bearing a proportion to its former income and its former debt. If the sum granted as a subsidy is not sufficient for the public needs of a province, its government has the power of taxing its people directly or of borrowing money on the credit of the province. Each province has also control over the revenues derived from its own public lands and from licenses granted to those who carry on certain kinds of business. Any uncertainty as to the rights of either the Federal or the Provincial government to rule is settled by an appeal to the Privy Council of Great Britain, whose decision is final.

The Public Debt.



CONFEDERATION MEDAL.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

THE EXTENSION OF CANADA.

The first Dominion Parliament met at Ottawa in 1867 Lord Monck was Governor-General, and John A. Macdonald, Premier. The most important business of this session was the addition of the Hudson's Bay Territory to the Dominion of Canada. George Etienne Cartier, of Quebec, and the Hon. Wm. McDougall were sent to England to arrange the business with the directors of the Hudson's Bay Company in London, and in 1869 all the vast extent of territory between Hudson Bay and the Rocky Mountains, which had for two hundred years been owned by the great company founded by Prince Rupert, passed into the possession of the Canadian Government. The price paid was £300,000 sterling, and the company was allowed to retain the land around the trading posts, and one-twentieth of the whole area. All exclusive rights of trade were given up, but the Hudson's Bay Company was so well established, and its servants understood their business so thoroughly, that it still holds a leading position in the trade of the North-West.



ONE OF THE "HALF-BREEDS."

Although the actual transfer of the Hudson's Bay Territory had not taken place, the Canadian Government sent surveyors into the settlements on the Red River in the summer of 1869.

Most of the settlers were French half-breeds, the majority of whom were very ignorant and excitable. When they saw the surveyors at work they imagined that Canada was about to seize their farms. Among them was a young man of some ability and education, named Louis Riel. He worked upon the fears and passions of his compatriots, and persuaded them to take up arms, seize Fort Garry, set up a republic and elect him president. At that time the Hudson's Bay governor at Fort Garry was very ill, and no one else had authority to suppress the rebellion.



GOV. McDOUGALL'S RETREAT, PEMBINA.

The Hon. Wm. McDougall was sent to the Red River in the autumn of 1869 with directions to remain there till he received intelligence of the transfer, and then he as governor, with a council, was to rule the territory till a new province of the Dominion was formed. When he arrived at Pembina, Riel sent him word that he must not attempt to cross the boundary. In the meantime Mr. Donald A. Smith, now Lord Strathcona, had used his influence as chief officer of the Hudson's Bay Company to bring about a settlement with the half-breeds. There were many people on the Red River who did not acknowledge the

authority of Riel's government, and some of these took up arms against him and were captured. Among them was a young man named Scott. In the winter of 1870 Scott was tried by a court-martial of the rebels, condemned and shot. This cold blooded act aroused the indignation of every loyal Canadian, for Scott owed no allegiance to the unauthorized government led by Riel. Volunteers from all directions hastened to join the ranks of the regulars, and in the summer of 1870 Colonel Garnet Wolseley and a body of troops set out for the Red River. The route taken was that by the Lake of the Woods, so often followed by Indian fur traders and French voyageurs. But the rebels did not wait the arrival of the troops. They returned to their homes, and their leaders sought safety in flight. Before Wolseley's troops reached Fort Garry the Manitoba Act was passed, and the Red River territory became a province of the Dominion of Canada. Ample provision was made to satisfy the claims of all the settlers, and in the absence of mischievous agitators the government was peaceably organized. Many of the soldiers, seeing what a goodly land they had entered into, remained to assist in its future development.

The Murder of Scott.

While these events were taking place, British Columbia had been spending more than her small, scattered and ever changing population could afford to pay. The gold excitement, which had begun in 1856, was over, most of the miners had moved to the goldfields of other countries, and those who could not leave the colony found it hard to get employment. Yet they believed in the resources of British Columbia, and thought that if it were united to Canada, means would be found to develop its mines, prosecute its fisheries, fell its forests, extend its commerce, and till and settle its fertile valleys. Delegates were sent to Ottawa to ask the Canadian government to admit into the confederation the colony containing such great natural wealth. They proposed, as one of the conditions of union, that a railroad should

be built to connect the province of British Columbia with the railway system of Canada. In the face of great opposition the Canadian government promised to grant their request. To build a railroad three thousand miles long through an almost uninhabited stretch of territory and across the widest mountain system in the world, was a tremendous undertaking for three millions of people, and many good and honest men prophesied that it would ruin the country. But Sir John Macdonald knew the fertility of the great prairie land between Lake Superior and the Rocky Mountains. Rich as it was, most of it must remain idle till means were found to bring people to its plains and transport the produce of their labors to the ocean. The sea of mountains that lay between the prairies and the Pacific was rich in minerals, both precious and useful. The mountain sides were clothed with valuable and almost boundless forests, and the harbors of the Pacific coast would at no distant day command a large share of the trade of the continent of Asia and of Western America.

The C. P. R. Proposed.

Sir John Macdonald determined that, cost what it might, Canada should obtain the gateway to the Pacific Ocean. The terms were settled. British Columbia, in 1871, became a province of the Dominion, and the Federal government pledged itself to commence within two, and finish within ten, years a transcontinental railroad. Surveyors were at once sent to find a route for the proposed railway, so that some estimate of its probable cost might be made. A syndicate of capitalists was formed to build the road. The terms upon which the work should be undertaken were almost settled, when it was discovered that members of the Canadian government had accepted money from Sir Hugh Allan, the head of the syndicate, to form part of the fund which was used in the elections that had lately taken place. A committee was appointed to enquire into the truth of the charges preferred

The C. P. R. Scandal.

against the ministry, but before its report was brought in Sir John Macdonald resigned. The governor general dissolved the House. The people of Canada refused to return to power the men, able though they were, who had laid themselves open to the charge of favoring the contractors at the expense of the people. The necessary cost of an election could well be borne by each party, and more should not be spent. The very suspicion that electors might be paid for their votes was intolerable. The people of the Confederation were free men, whose duty it was to form an opinion on public questions, and whose privilege it was to vote according to that opinion without hope of private gain or fear of loss. So thought and felt the majority of the people, and the Liberal government, under the leadership of Alexander Mackenzie, succeeded to power.

Both Parties Negligent.

The Reformers did not attempt to fulfil the clause in the agreement between Canada and British Columbia which said that the western section of the railroad was to be commenced at the same time as the eastern part of it. There was, accordingly, great discontent in the Pacific province, so great indeed that its inhabitants wished to withdraw from the Confederation.

In the meantime, the government of Prince Edward Island, considering that it as well as its neighbors needed a railroad, commenced the construction of a narrow gauge road in 1871. There were many cautious people in the little colony who thought that, sea girt as it was and pierced in every direction by navigable estuaries, there was small need to burden the people with the cost of a railroad. Their opinions were overruled and the road was built, and perhaps not in the most economical way. The people of the island, unwilling to submit to the additional taxation necessary to raise money to equip and operate the road, began to think it would be wiser, after all, to accept the offer of the Canadian government and join the Confederation. Accordingly, after sending two delegations to

Ottawa, terms of union were agreed upon and Prince Edward Island became a province of Canada in 1873. Canada consented to take over the railroad, which then became part of the Intercolonial system.

P. E. Island Joins Canada.

As has been already related, the people of Prince Edward Island were very anxious to obtain their farms from the landlords who inherited titles to the estates granted more than a hundred years before. By one of the terms of union the Dominion of Canada undertook to advance the money necessary to purchase these estates. A law was passed compelling the proprietors to sell their property to the provincial government. All the tenants were then allowed to purchase the land at a fair price and so become freeholders. Since 1873 Canada has stretched from the Atlantic to the Pacific and from the forty-ninth parallel to the shores of the Arctic Ocean. The ancient colony of Newfoundland, though often invited to form a part of the Dominion, still remains an independent colony.

Great numbers of people have, since the beginning of the twentieth century, come into the valley of the Saskatchewan from the United States, from Great Britain and from European countries. At the petition of these people the two new provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan were formed in 1905.

CHAPTER XL.

RULERS OF THE DOMINION.

The first governor-general under Confederation was Lord Monck. He was succeeded in the following year by Lord Lisgar, and in 1872 Lord Dufferin became governor-general of Canada. This nobleman was richly endowed with those qualities for which men are both admired and beloved. He travelled over the length and breadth of Canada, and took great pains to inform himself of the resources of the country and the needs of its people. He strove to foster feelings of goodwill between this colony and the mother country, and at the same time he impressed upon the statesmen of England the value of her great American possession. His example has been followed by other representatives of the sovereign. From 1878 to 1883 the governor-general was the Marquis of Lorne, now the Duke of Argyle. His wife, the Princess Louise, daughter of Queen Victoria, accompanied her husband to Ottawa. During their residence in Canada, and since their return to Great Britain, the noble marquis and his royal consort have ever shown themselves warm and appreciative friends of the colony. Lord Lansdowne, Lord Stanley of Preston, now Lord Derby, the Earl of Aberdeen, the Earl of Minto and Earl Grey have



LORD DUFFERIN.

since filled the position of governor-general. While in a self-governing colony the representatives of the sovereign may not enter into party contests, yet their personal qualities, as well as their high position, give them great influence in public and social affairs.

Whatever may be said of the influence of the Governor-General, the real rulers of the country are the Premier and the members of his cabinet. We have seen that the Conservative government of Sir John A. Macdonald was in 1874 succeeded by a Liberal administration under the leadership of the Hon. Alexander Mackenzie. During Mr. Mackenzie's term of office there were hard times. Canada was no worse off than her neighbors, but the people grew discontented and blamed the government. Sir John A. Macdonald proposed that the trade policy of the country should be changed. Instead of the old system of imposing light import duties for revenue purposes only, he proposed that heavy duties should be charged on all goods that could be manufactured in Canada. In this way he hoped to establish and build up manufactures, and thereby increase the wealth and population of the country. This system of protection to native industries was called the National Policy. In spite of the arguments of the free traders, who declared that while the National Policy might make the fortunes of a few manufacturers the money would come out of



SIR JOHN A. MACDONALD.

The National Policy.

the pockets of the farmers and mechanics who consumed most of the goods, the majority of the people voted for Sir John Macdonald and the National Policy. Since 1879 there have been no great changes in the customs duties. Such changes would seriously disturb the industries established in the country: moreover the expenses of the government and the great public works demand large sums of money, which are still raised by customs duties.



SIR DONALD PEAK, SELKIRKS. (NEAR EAGLE PASS.)

In 1898 the Liberal government, under Sir Wilfrid Laurier, made a change in the tariff by which certain exports of Great Britain were allowed to enter Canada under lower duties than the same articles imported from other countries.

With the return of Sir John Macdonald to power in 1879, a new railroad syndicate was formed. This company received an immense sum of money and enormous grants of land to induce it to undertake the work of constructing the Canadian Pacific railroad. It went to work with great energy, and in the year 1885 the last spike of the road was driven at Eagle Pass, in the

Selkirk range, by Sir Donald Smith (now Lord Strathcona). Engineering difficulties which seemed insurmountable had been overcome and one of the finest railroads in the world was built across the Dominion from ocean to ocean.

Sir John Macdonald remained premier of Canada till his death in 1891. From the year 1844, when as a young man of twenty-nine he entered parliament, John A. Macdonald had taken a leading part in Canadian affairs, and when at the age of seventy-six death called the veteran statesman from the task of ruling the people he had done so much to inspire with a national spirit, friends and opponents alike hastened to do him honor. Queen Victoria made the wife who had been so faithful a helpmate to him a baroness in her own right. His labors in the cause of the Empire were recognized by a memorial service in Westminster Abbey and a tablet to his memory placed in St. Paul's Cathedral.

A Great Statesman.

Sir John A. Macdonald's greatest political opponent was George Brown, the editor of the Toronto *Globe*. Brown, who was a native of Scotland, fought with great boldness the abuses in the system of government in his adopted country. He helped to bring about the abolition of the Clergy Reserves and Seigneurial Tenure. He contended for representation according to population, was a warm advocate of Reciprocity and a devout believer in the principles of Free Trade. The part that he took in bringing about Confederation we have already seen. An effective public speaker and an able writer, George Brown did not believe in compromises but took the most direct way to accomplish the ends at which he aimed. In 1880 his career was cut short while he was yet in the prime of life by a bullet fired by a drunken workman.

Alexander Mackenzie, Premier of Canada from 1873 to 1878, was one of the most honest and upright of men. It is given to few to command as he did the respect and esteem of politicians

of all parties. For neither friend nor foe would he swerve from what he believed to be the path of duty. After the Conservatives succeeded to power he resigned the leadership of his party to Edward Blake, a Toronto lawyer of unquestioned ability. Blake chose the field of Imperial politics and, resigning his position in Canada, went to Great Britain, where he is still a member of the British parliament. His place as leader of the Opposition was filled by Wilfrid Laurier, who has since 1896 been the Premier of Canada.

Alexander Mackenzie.



HON. ALEXANDER MACKENZIE.

When Sir John Macdonald died he was succeeded by Sir John Abbott, a member of his cabinet. This premier, who was an old man, resigned on account of illness, and Sir John Thompson, a distinguished Nova Scotia lawyer, took his place. In 1893 the Premier went to Paris to take part in the Bering Sea arbitration. The next year he visited England, when, as a reward for his services, the Queen made him a member of the Privy Council. Within a few days the world was shocked by the news of Sir John Thompson's sudden and untimely death. The fourth Premier of the Conservative party, elected in 1891, was Mackenzie Bowell. When Premier Bowell accepted the leadership, the country was agitated by the Manitoba School Question. The Manitoba government in 1890 had passed an act which established a system of free and unsectarian schools within the province. Previous to that year education had been largely controlled by the clergy, and religion had been taught in the

schools. The Roman Catholics and Church of England clergy declared that, under the British North America Act, the legislature of the province had no right to pass a law which deprived them of the privilege of having the doctrines of their religion taught to their children in the public schools. The matter went from one court to the other, and at last the Privy Council of England decided that the Parliament of Manitoba had acted within its rights. From this decision there was no appeal. Then the Manitobans who were discontented with the act besought the Dominion government to pass a law giving them what they desired. This in certain cases the Dominion parliament had power to do, though the right had never been exercised. The Conservative party agreed to support a measure of remedial legislation. There were, however, divisions in the party, and Sir Mackenzie Bowell resigned. Sir Charles Tupper, who had been High Commissioner for Canada in England, returned and took the leadership of the Conservatives. Parliament was dissolved and the Liberals, who had all along opposed interference with provincial affairs, were returned to power. Their leader, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, had influence enough to persuade the Manitoba government to allow religion to be taught in the public schools without in any other way interfering with the system of education established by the Manitoba School Act. The Laurier government has since 1896 been three times returned to power.

Schools and Religion.

It is too early yet to give even a brief review of the acts of the Liberal government, nor is there space for it here. We must return now to relate the story of the second rebellion in the North-West and to consider Canada's dealings with the outside world.



PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS, WINNIPEG.

CHAPTER XLI.

THE SASKATCHEWAN REBELLION.

When, in 1870, Manitoba was organized into a province, the immense extent of land drained by the Saskatchewan and the Mackenzie, with their network of tributary lakes and rivers, received the name of the North West Territories. Till then the land of the setting sun had rarely been trodden by the foot of civilized man. The buffalo, in countless herds, fed on the rich grass of its boundless prairie and afforded to the Indian not only food, but also material for clothing and tents. Deer and other game were plentiful, but, as bread is to civilized man, so the buffalo was to the Indian his chief dependence. No sooner did Canada come into possession of the hunting grounds of the Hudson's Bay Company than the Indians began to move west and north. Treaties were made with them. They gave up the freedom of the plains and confined themselves to lands reserved for them by the government. But the buffalo rapidly disappeared, and the Indians became dependent on the govern

Driven Farther West.

ment for food and clothing. In 1876 the Hon. David Laird was appointed lieutenant governor of the North-West. He was assisted in his duties by a council of three members. The governor made his home in Battleford, then the capital of the Territories. Mr. Laird soon won the affection and respect of the Indians. He never deceived them, but treated them with such firmness and kindness that the influence of the tall white chief was powerful even among the most distant and savage tribes.

When the fertility of the Saskatchewan Valley became known, settlers from Eastern Canada, from Great Britain and from some of the over-peopled countries of Europe, began to arrive. They had been preceded in 1870 by the discontented half-breeds, who left Manitoba during and after the Red River rebellion of 1869.

In 1881 Governor Laird was succeeded by Hon. Edgar Dewdney. The four districts of Alberta, Assiniboia, Saskatchewan and Athabasca were formed from the territory, and the capital was moved to Regina. Otherwise there was, as yet, no change in the government of the North-West Territories. Order was maintained by the mounted police, who were stationed at wide intervals through the country, and whose bravery and devotion to duty made them a terror to evil-doers of all races. One, and perhaps the chief and most difficult of their duties, was to prevent the sale of liquor to Indians, who could not control their craving for strong drink, and who suffered even more than white men from its bad effects.

As time went on, the half-breeds began to fear that their lands to which they had no titles, would be taken from them and sold to the settlers who, now that the Canadian Pacific railroad was nearing completion, were arriving in great numbers. Buffalo were becoming scarce, and the Indian tribes feared hunger and grew restless. Louis Riel, who had been an outlaw since the first rebellion, was allowed to return to Canada. The

requests for titles to their lands which the half breeds had sent to Ottawa had been disregarded by careless officials, and Riel, finding the soil ready once again for the seeds of disaffection and disloyalty, boldly raised the standard of rebellion on the 18th of March, 1885. Soon the half breeds took up arms, and the little groups of white settlers fled in terror to the stations of the mounted police. Many of the Indian tribes also took the war-path. The most formidable of these was Big Bear, whose reserve was between the mounted police station of Fort Pitt and the little white settlement of Frog Lake. In command of Fort Pitt was Francis Dickens, a son of the great novelist, with a force of about thirty men. Nearer Battleford the Indians were under the leadership of a chief called Poundmaker. Farther west there was danger of a rising among the warlike Blackfeet.



BIG BEAR.

Early in the spring of 1885 all Canada was aroused by the alarming news that the half-breeds or Metis of the Saskatchewan, under Gabriel Dumont, had defeated a detachment of mounted police and volunteers at Duck Lake, near Prince Albert. This was followed by the far more alarming intelligence that Big Bear was on the war-path, and that his braves had massacred the men at Frog Lake, carried off the women and children, and compelled the mounted police to abandon Fort Pitt. Speedily the 90th Rifles were despatched from Winnipeg, and this regiment was joined at Qu'Appelle by a large and well equipped force under General Middleton. The soldiers were carried the greater part of the way on the newly constructed Canadian Pacific Railway; and although there were gaps in the road and a long march of some three hundred miles to be taken by the main column after it left the railroad, these untried soldiers hurried forward with

the ardor and endurance of veterans. A detachment under General Strange was sent by way of Calgary to Edmonton to fight Big Bear, while another under Colonel Otter marched northward to relieve Battleford. The half-breeds under Dumont fought bravely and well at Fish Creek and at Batoche, but were beaten by Middleton. Otter relieved Battleford, but was defeated by Poundmaker at Cut Knife Creek, although the Indian chief called back his braves when he found that his



wigwams were safe. General Strange relieved Edmonton, and one of his officers, Major Steele, rescued Big Bear's prisoners, and drove him and his band northward.

Riel was captured, but Dumont escaped. The Indian chiefs either surrendered or were taken prisoners, and by midsummer the rebellion, like one of the sudden storms of the north-west, was over and the country was at peace again. Riel, this time, suffered the penalty of his crimes, and eight of the leading rebels among the Indians were put to death.

CHAPTER XLII.

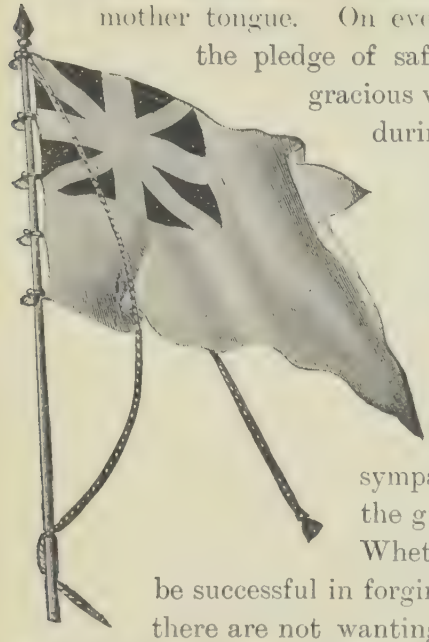
RELATIONS TO THE EMPIRE.

While Canada is a self-governing colony it is not an independent state. England reserves to herself the power of disallowing any act passed by the Canadian Parliament, but she does not interfere with legislation except when it affects her relations with a foreign nation. No treaty except commercial ones can be made by Canada, but it has become the practice to give the colony representation on the board of commissioners that makes a treaty in which its interests are concerned. The highest court of appeal is the Privy Council of Great Britain. The Governor-General is appointed by the British government without any direct reference to the wishes of Canadians.

Military Training. England has now entrusted the fortresses of Canada to Canadian troops, and there are many Canadians well trained in arms and ready to defend their native land or, as recently in the South African war, to volunteer in the service of the motherland. At the same time, Canadians are all assured that if the need should ever come, England would spare neither blood nor treasure to keep their true North-land within the empire to which it would ever be attached.

Toward the end of the nineteenth century British and colonial statesmen began to think seriously of some plan by which the different parts of the British empire could be drawn closer together. The railroad, the steamship and the telegraph have done much to overcome distance. Australia, Canada, India and Africa have ceased to be mere names to one another, and the mothers of the old land who send their sons and daughters to the colonies no longer bid them a lifelong farewell.

Each of Great Britain's distant possessions contributes in some degree to the needs or luxuries of the motherland, and receives in return the products of her looms and factories. Each looks back with pride upon the struggles of the British race for freedom and makes her own the treasures of literature in the mother tongue. On every sea the flag of England is the pledge of safety and protection. By many gracious words and deeds Queen Victoria, during her long reign, showed that she bore a mother's love to her distant subjects, while King Edward has treated colonial statesmen and colonial troops in such a way as to make them feel that he is not only the sovereign to whom they owe allegiance, but the warm and sympathizing friend of every part of the great empire over which he rules. Whether the genius of statesmen will be successful in forging new bonds of empire or not, there are not wanting proofs of the strength of the old ties of love and loyalty. In speaking of Nova Scotia, we have seen that colonial soldiers of the middle of last century were ready to shed their blood for the mother country. In the war of 1812 and in the rebellions of 1837, 1871 and 1885, Canadians proved themselves prepared to die in defence of Britain's flag. In 1884 Canadian boatmen helped to convey British troops when they vainly went to the relief of Gordon at Khartoum, and General Kitchener proved the value of Canadian engineers in the Soudanese war.



In 1899 Great Britain declared war against the republics of the Transvaal and the Orange Free State. As time went on it became evident that nothing but the complete conquest of the

Transvaal would close the war. The colonies saw that Great Britain would be glad of their help. From every province of Canada young men hastened to offer their services to the Queen.

Canadians in S. Africa.

In the trenches of Paardeberg the gallantry of the Canadian troops won a victory for the Empire, and before the fall of Pretoria (in 1902) ended the war, the volunteers proved that they could not only fight with dash and bravery but also endure with fortitude the hardships of a soldier's life. Under the fire of the enemy, on the long, hard march and by the camp fire, comrades from all parts of the empire learned each other's worth, and England proved that colonial loyalty was more than a name. At his own cost a Canadian, Lord Strathcona, equipped a company of horse. During the war Canadian nurses added their gentle ministrations to those of their British sisters, and since its close Canadian teachers have been engaged in fitting the children of the Transvaal for the duties of citizenship in a British colony and perhaps, too, in hastening the fulfilment of the dream of the poet who wrote :

"Till the war-drum throbbed no longer, and the battle flags were furled,
In the parliament of man, the federation of the world."

CHAPTER XLIII.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

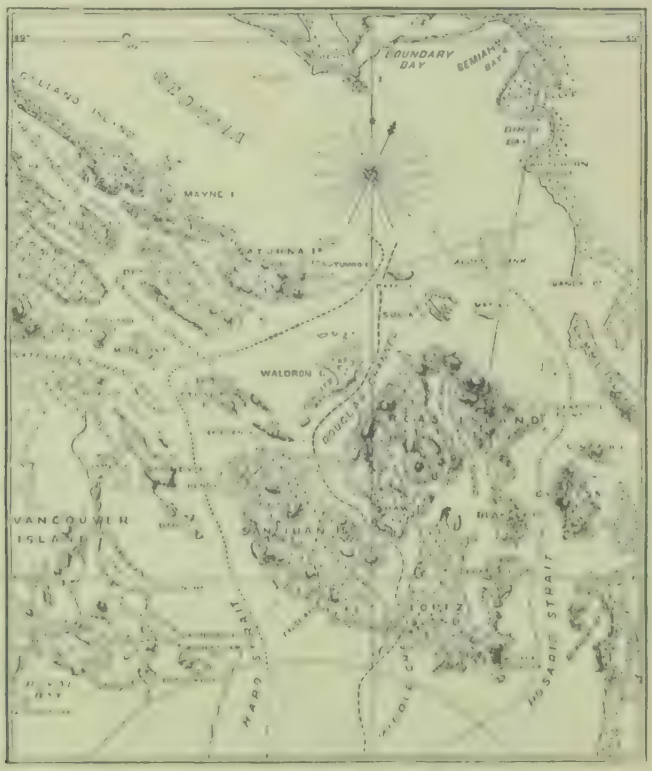
While the work of forming the Confederation was still incomplete, Sir John A. Macdonald was asked to go to Washington to act as member of a joint commission for the purpose of settling questions in dispute between England and the United States—questions which closely concerned Canada.

Remembered the Alabama.

As we have already seen, the people of the United States were angry with England on account of her attitude during the civil war. When the Union was saved it was remembered that Great Britain had treated the rebel states as a nation. Those shipowners and merchants whose property had been seized and whose trade had been ruined by the *Alabama* and other southern cruisers, clamored for compensation. A large party contended that much of the loss of life and property during the concluding years of the war was caused by help given to rebels by the *Alabama*. England had already offered to allow impartial judges to decide how much she really owed the United States for the harm resulting from her negligence or her fault in allowing the southern cruisers to put to sea from a British port, but this reasonable offer was refused.

Now that Canada was about to extend her borders to the Pacific Ocean, it became necessary to settle the San Juan difficulty. When the Oregon treaty was signed the 49th parallel was made the southern boundary of the British possessions from the Lake of the Woods to the Pacific Ocean. In order to leave the whole of Vancouver Island to Great Britain, the boundary line was made to cross the Straits of Juan de Fuca,

a little to the south of that parallel. Whether it went so far south as to give the chief islands of the San Juan archipelago to England or not, was a disputed point which some years before had nearly caused a war between Great Britain and the



SKETCH MAP OF HARO ARCHIPELAGO, SHOWING THE THREE CHANNELS.

1. Line claimed by the United States. 2. Proposed middle channel. 3. Line claimed by Great Britain.

United States. A temporary settlement had been made, allowing the subjects of both nations to occupy the islands. The time had now come to put an end to this unsatisfactory state of affairs.

On her part Canada claimed that she had suffered loss of life and property by the Fenian raids, which the United States should have interfered to prevent. But neither the *Alabama* claims, the San Juan boundary, nor even the Fenian trouble affected Canada so nearly as the fisheries dispute. By the reciprocity treaty United States fishermen enjoyed equal rights in the territorial waters of the British colonies with fishermen of New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island and Quebec. With the abrogation of that treaty they ceased to have any such right, but the New England fishermen were unwilling to give up their profitable employment. As England by the Act of British North America surrendered all claim to the Canadian fisheries, it became necessary for Canada to defend her fishery rights or come to some agreement by which the United States should pay for the fish taken by her citizens from Canadian waters. After long and careful consultation and deliberation the commissioners agreed that the *Alabama* claims should be settled by an impartial tribunal. This court met at Geneva in 1872, and decreed that Great Britain should pay the United States the sum of fifteen and a half millions of dollars, which was promptly done.

The Fisheries.

The San Juan boundary was referred to the arbitration of the Emperor of Germany, who decided that San Juan belonged to the United States. The Canadian government was persuaded by England to withdraw the Fenian claims, in return for which concession the mother country went security for a loan of two and a half million pounds sterling to help build the railway across the continent.

Dispute Settled.

The fisheries dispute was settled in this way. The fishermen of both nations were to be allowed to ply their calling as far south as the 36th parallel of north latitude; fish and fish-oil were to be admitted free of duty to both countries; but because the Canadian

fisheries are so much more valuable than those of the United States, a sum of money, the amount of which was to be settled by an impartial tribunal to meet at Halifax, was to be paid to Canada. This arrangement was to last for ten years, and could then be terminated by either party on giving two years' notice. The fisheries commission met in Halifax in 1877, when Mackenzie was premier, and decided that the sum due Canada for the twelve years arranged for by the treaty of Washington was five and a half millions of dollars.



SEALING FLEET.

The United States gave notice in 1883 and the treaty came to an end in 1885. As before, the fishermen refused to keep out of Canadian waters and it became necessary to send armed cruisers to guard the fisheries. About this time the question of the seal fisheries began to give trouble on the Pacific coast. The chief breeding grounds of the seal are on the Pribiloff islands in Bering Sea. This sea, which divides Alaska from Siberia, is one hundred miles wide at its narrowest part between the Aleutian islands and Asia. The Americans declared that the whole sea and all the seals in it belonged to the United States, and sent war ships to seize any sealing vessels found

there. In Victoria, British Columbia, there is a large sealing fleet, and owners of the seized vessels called upon England to protect them in the pursuit of their lawful calling, and force the American government to pay for the property taken and the losses occasioned to their business. This matter, too, was settled by arbitration. In 1893 the court of arbitration met in Paris, and representatives from the United States and Canada placed the claims of their respective countries before the court.

The Decision.

It was decided that the United States owned no waters beyond the three-mile limit, that the seals were wild animals and as such were not the property of any nation, and that the United States must pay all just claims of the Canadian sealers.

For the protection of seal life, however, the arbitration advised that both nations should enforce certain rules upon their seal hunters. This was agreed to, and British and American subjects engaged in the sealing business, have ever since been obliged to observe a close season, to discontinue the use of firearms, and not to hunt within sixty miles of the Pribiloff islands. These rules do not affect hunters of other nations, nor do they interfere with the operations of a commercial company which has the privilege of killing large numbers of seals on the shores of the Pribiloff islands.

Boundary Dispute.

A dispute of long standing concerning the north-western boundary of British Columbia was finally settled in 1903. When the United States purchased Alaska from the Russians they acquired with the peninsula a narrow strip of seacoast reaching as far south as Portland Channel. The eastern boundary of this part of Alaskan territory was defined in terms that gave rise to misunderstanding. In 1896 gold was discovered in the sands of the Klondike, a tributary of the Yukon river. This stream was in the Yukon district, very near Alaska. The discovery proved to be a very important one, and soon gold-seekers

from all parts of the world were inquiring their way thither. The easiest and most direct entrance to the gold-bearing district was by way of Lynn Canal or channel, one of the numerous fiords of the Pacific coast. British Columbians thought they had a site for a port on this canal, but the Americans contended that all inlets on that part of the coast belonged to them. Then both Canada and the United States felt the necessity of settling for all time the width of that strip of seacoast between Canada and the Pacific Ocean.

A commission consisting of Lord Alverstone, chief justice of England, Elihu Root, Henry C. Lodge and George Turner, for the United States, and A. B. Aylesworth and Sir Louis Jette, on behalf of Canada, sat in London and decided that the width of the territory belonging to the United States extending from the peninsula of Alaska to Portland Channel, should measure ten marine leagues from the heads of the inlets, and not from the seacoast, as Canada contended. Judge Armour, who had been appointed as a Canadian commissioner, died while the commission was sitting. Sir Louis Jette and Mr. Aylesworth refused to sign the award.

Canadians Steadfast.

About the time of Confederation a large party in the United States wished the British colonies to become states of the union, but the great majority of colonists, while acknowledging the progressiveness and enterprise of their neighbor, were unwilling to break the tie that bound them to the mother country. In 1891 a proposal, under the name of unrestricted reciprocity, that Canada should adopt "free trade with the United States and a common tariff against the rest of the world" drew forth such a strong protest from the Canadian people as convinced the world that no material advantage which the United States could offer would induce Canadians to give up the right to manage their own affairs in their own way.

CHAPTER XLIV.

RETROSPECT.

Looking back over the forty years that have elapsed since Confederation, we pause to ask ourselves whether the ends which the fathers of Confederation had in view have been attained. Some of them undoubtedly have. Since 1867 there has never been any difficulty in carrying on the business of the country. When the party in power lost the confidence of the people there has always been another strong enough to take up the reins of government, and the work of legislation and administration has gone on without interruption.



CITY OF WINNIPEG.

The prairie country has become one of the great granaries of the world, and every year thousands of acres are being added to the area under cultivation. From the Hudson's Bay factory of Fort Garry and the village in its neighborhood has sprung the large and progressive city of Winnipeg. At several points in the province of Manitoba beautiful cities have been built in the centre of prosperous farming communities. The great valley of the Saskatchewan is being rapidly filled with industrious and enterprising immigrants from the United States, Great Britain

and Europe. On the eastern foothills and the western plateaus of the Rocky Mountains great herds of cattle and bands of horses thrive and multiply. In the milder climate of the valleys and islands of British Columbia orchards are beginning to rival those of the famous Annapolis valley or the southern peninsula of Ontario. In other provinces agriculture has become a more profitable business, as farmers learn to apply the latest and best methods for the improvement of crops and of stock. This is very noticeable in the little province of Prince

The North-west Provinces.



TIPPLE AND COKE OVENS AT MICHEL.

Edward Island, where stock-raising and dairying have to a large extent taken the place of the mixed farming of former days. For the progress in farming Canada is largely indebted to the labors of enthusiastic and capable officials connected with the Department of Agriculture.

In the older provinces mines have been developed, but it is in British Columbia that the greatest mining activity has prevailed. Silver and lead, copper and gold, as well as iron, have been discovered in the rocks of southern British Columbia and on Vancouver Island. Smelters have been erected, and among the mountains of Kootenay half a score of towns have sprung

up and some of these have grown into cities. Great colliers carry coal from the mines of Vancouver Island to California and South America, and the smelters of the Boundary country on both sides of the line get their fuel from the Crowsnest Pass. Inexhaustible as these coal measures seem, others of like richness have recently been discovered. On the creeks tributary to the Upper Fraser and in the mines still farther north, hydraulic machinery has supplanted placer mining. The great gold excitement caused by the discovery of gold in the Yukon territory has drawn thousands of people to the Pacific coast and given rise to the city of Dawson and some smaller towns near the Arctic circle.

Mining Centres.

The modern methods of canning and cold storage have added value to the earliest of all Canadian industries—the fisheries. The lumber of the great forests of the Pacific seacoast finds markets in Australia, South Africa, Asia and Great Britain, while the woods of middle and eastern Canada furnish material for the factories and buildings not only of our own provinces but of the neighboring states.

Canada is a great commercial country, ranking fourth among the ship-owning countries of the world. Since the opening of the Canadian Pacific Railway the shortest route between Great Britain and the Orient is through Canada. Swift steamers carry goods from England to its depôts in Halifax, St. John or Montreal, whence they are conveyed by rail to Vancouver, and thence the splendid steamships of the Canadian Pacific company transport them to Asiatic ports. A line of fine steamships plies regularly between Canada and Australia, calling on the way at New Zealand and the islands of the Pacific. Vancouver and Victoria have become distributing centres for the trade of China, India and Japan with Canada and the United States. Between these cities and more northern ports on the Pacific there is a steady trade.

Great Steamships.

Since Confederation the people of Canada have learned to manufacture many things which they formerly imported, and the employment thus afforded has added largely to the growth of her cities. Railways now connect all important industrial centres, and in the near future the Grand Trunk Pacific will open up the northern part of Canada for settlement and give another highway across the Dominion from sea to sea.

Growth of Education.

The advance of education has kept pace with Canada's material progress. The provinces vie with each other in the excellence of their public schools. In the eastern Maritime Provinces and in British Columbia the schools are undenominational. In Quebec and Ontario there are separate schools, that is, one set of schools for Protestants and another for Roman Catholics. In Manitoba, while the school system is not a separate one, provision has been made for teaching those children whose parents desire it the tenets of their religion. In all the older provinces, in Manitoba and in British Columbia, there are colleges and universities, which are steadily growing in resources and improving in efficiency.

How much of our progress is due to Confederation cannot easily be decided, but its bitterest living opponents must grant that in spite of failures and mistakes a good beginning has been made. The plans were laid by the men of the Confederation period. Most of the work has been done by those who were children then or who have been born since. Canada's future is in the hands of the boys and girls of to-day, and it depends on their industry, intelligence, patriotism and righteousness to advance her another step toward an honorable station in the Imperial household, or it may be to win for her a place among the family of nations.

LIST OF IMPORTANT DATES

1000	Lief Ericson plants a colony in Vineland in North America.
1492	Columbus discovers America.
1497	John Cabot discovers Canada.
1500	Gaspard Cortereal carries slaves from Canada.
1523	Verrazano explores Atlantic Coast of United States for France.
1534	Cartier's first voyage.
1535	Cartier's second voyage.
1542	Roberval's expedition to colonize Canada.
1583	Humphrey Gilbert comes out to plant a colony in Newfoundland.
1603	Champlain explores the St. Lawrence to the Lachine Rapids.
1605	Port Royal founded.
1608	Founding of Quebec.
1621	Nova Scotia granted to Sir William Alexander.
1625	Order of Knights Baronets of Nova Scotia formed.
1627	The One Hundred Associates; Canada granted to.
1628	Port Royal and Quebec captured by English under Kirke.
1632	Treaty of St. Germaine-en-Laye.
1633–1649	Jesuit mission to Huron country.
1635	Death of Champlain.
1642	Founding of Montreal.
1645	Capture of Fort La Tour.
1663	Royal Government established in Canada.
1665	De Tracy punishes the Iroquois.
1671	Great Council of Indians and French at Sault Ste. Marie.
1672	Frontenac comes to Canada.
1673	Discovery of Mississippi.
1679	La Salle sets out on his journey down the Mississippi.
1686	Murder of La Salle.
1689	Massacre of Lachine; return of Frontenac.
1690	Phips' attempt to take Quebec; capture of Port Royal.
1702	War of Spanish Succession.
1713	Treaty of Utrecht.
1731	The Verendryes set out to explore north-west.
1745	Pepperell takes Louisbourg.
1748	Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.
1749	Founding of Halifax; Bienville takes possession of Ohio Valley.
1754	Founding of Fort Du Quesne; defeat of Washington.
1755	Braddock's defeat; capture of Beauséjour; expulsion of Acadians; British victory at Lake George.
1756	Opening of Seven Years' War.
1757	French take Fort William Henry.
1758	Fall of Louisbourg; death of Lord Howe; defeat of Abercrombie; British capture Fort Frontenac.

1759 Fall of Quebec.
1760 Capitulation of Montreal.
1763 Conspiracy of Pontiac ; treaty of Paris.
1764 Military rule.
1770 Quebec Act.
1775 American invasion ; siege of Quebec ; death of Montgomery.
1776 Surrender of Burgoyne's army.
1778 Cook reaches Vancouver Island.
1783 Loyalist immigration.
1791 Constitutional Act.
1792 Vancouver begins explorations.
1793 McKenzie reaches Pacific Ocean.
1808 Fraser explores Fraser River.
1811 Thompson reaches the mouth of the Columbia.
1812 United States declare war against England ; capture of Michillimackinac; surrender of Detroit; victory at Queenston Heights.
1813 Defeat at Moraviantown ; loss of York ; victories of Beaver Dams ; Chrysler's Farm ; Chateauguay ; duel between Chesapeake and Shannon.
1814 La Colle Mill, Lundy's Lane ; burning of Capitol at Washington.
1818 Convention between Great Britain and United States ; treaty of Ghent ; battle of New Orleans.
1822 Canada Trade Act.
1837 Rebellion in Lower Canada and in Upper Canada.
1838 Lord Durham comes to Canada.
1841 Union Act passed.
1849 Rebellion Losses Bill.
1854 Abolition of Clergy Reserves and Reciprocity Treaty.
1842 Ashburton Treaty.
1843 Hudson Bay Company build Fort Camosun on Vancouver Island.
1846 Oregon Treaty.
1858 British Columbia becomes a crown colony.
1861 American Civil War declared.
1867 Dominion of Canada formed, July 1.
1870 Red River Rebellion ; Manitoba formed into a province.
1871 British Columbia joins Dominion ; Washington Treaty.
1872 Geneva Arbitration.
1873 Prince Edward Island joins Confederation.
1879 National Policy introduced ; Canadian Pacific Railway charter granted.
1885 Saskatchewan Rebellion ; completion of C. P. R.
1891 Death of Sir John A. Macdonald.
1893 Bering Sea Arbitration.
1903 Alaskan Boundary Commission.
1905 Provinces of Saskatchewan and Alberta formed.

KEY TO PRONUNCIATION

1. French a, represented by ă = English a in mat.
2. " e, " ĕ = " e in fern.
3. " é, " ay = " ay in may.
4. " è, " aĭ = " aĭ in air.
5. " i, " ee = " ee in feel.
6. " o, " ŏ = " o in rob.
7. " o, " ō = " o in robe.
8. " u has no equivalent in English. It approaches the *ew* in *dew*.
9. " au and eau, represented by ō = English o in robe.
10. " eu, represented by u = English u in fur.
11. " ou, " oo = " oo in too.
12. " oi, " wa = " wa in water.

NASAL SOUNDS.

FOR THESE WE HAVE NO ENGLISH EQUIVALENTS.

13. am, an, em and en are given in *blanc mange*, *encore*, etc.
14. im, in, aim and ain resemble the initial sound in *anger*.
15. om and on are given in *bon bon*, *on dit*, etc.
16. um and un resemble the initial sound in *unction*.

CONSONANTS.

17. ç = s in sun.
18. ch = sh in shun.
19. g before e or i = z in *azure*.
20. j = z in *azure*.
21. gn = the gn in mignonette.
22. h is silent as in *honour*.
23. s between vowel sounds = z.

ACCENT.

In English words of two or more syllables, a marked stress or accent is placed on some one syllable. Thus *Henry*, *Margaret*, and *chapel* have the accent on the first syllable. This English accent should be carefully avoided in pronouncing French words and the syllables should all be stressed alike. Thus *Henri*, *Marguerite*, and *Chapelle* are pronounced *En-ree*, *Mar-ghe-reet*, *Sha-pell*.

LIST OF NAMES WITH PRONUNCIATION.

(The figures refer to the rules given on page 279.)

Aix-la-Chapelle . . . . = Ace-la-Shapell.
Anse du Foulon . . . . = Anse-dew-foolon. (13, 8, 11, 15.)
Beauséjour . . . . . = Bō-say-zhoor.
Beaubassin . . . . . = Bō-bas-sin. (14.)
Beauharnois. . . . . = Bōhar-nwa. (12.)
Biencourt . . . . . = Bee-in-koor. (14.)
Bienville. . . . . = Bee-in-veel.
Bigot, François. . . . . = Bee-gō, Fran-swa. (13, 12.)
Bougainville . . . . . = Boo-gain-veel. (14.)
Bourgeois, Marguerite . . = Boor-zhwa, Mar-ghĕ-reet.
Bouquet . . . . . = Boo-kay.
Bourlamaque . . . . . = Boor-lă-măk.
Bréhœuf . . . . . = Bray-bŭf.
Cabot . . . . . = Kă-bŏt (originally an Italian word).
Cartier, Jaques. . . . . = Kăr-tee-ay, Zhak.
Castin. . . . . = Kăs-tin. (14.)
Carignan . . . . . = Kă-ree-gnan. (21, 13.)
Champlain . . . . . = Sham-plain. (13, 14.)
Chartres . . . . . = Shar-tr.
Crèvecœur . . . . . = Kraiv-Kŭr. (4, 10.)
Duchesneau. . . . . = Dew-shay-nō. (8, 3, 19.)
Duquesne . . . . . = Dew-kain.
Gaspereau . . . . . = Gas-pe-ro.
Germain-en-Laye . . . . = Zhair-main-en-lay. (14, 13.)
Galissoniere. . . . . = Ga-lee-son-nee-air.
Guercheville. . . . . = Gair-shĕ-veel.
Jonquiere . . . . . = Zhon-kee-air.
Le Jeune . . . . . = Lĕ-zhŭn. (10.)
Lallemant . . . . . = La-lĕ-man.
Le Loutre . . . . . = Lĕ-loo-tr.
Madeleine de Verchères . = Mă-d'-len-dĕ Vair-shair.
Malplaquet . . . . . = Mal-pla-kai.
Maisonneuve . . . . . = May-zon-nŭv.
Marie. . . . . = Má-ree.
Montmagny. . . . . = Mon-ma-gnee. (21.)
Miquelon. . . . . = Mee-kĕ-lon. (15.)
Perrot. . . . . = Per-rō.
Poutrincourt . . . . . = Poo-trin-koor. (14.)
Recollet . . . . . = Ray kol-lai.
Rouge. . . . . = Roozh.
Rouville, Hertel de . . . = Roo-veel, Air-tell dĕ.
Sault . . . . . = Sō.
Tonti, Henri. . . . . = Ton-tee, En-ree. (22.)
Vaudreuil . . . . . = Vō drú-yĕ. (10.)
Vérendrye . . . . . = Vay-ren-dree. (3, 13, 5.

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